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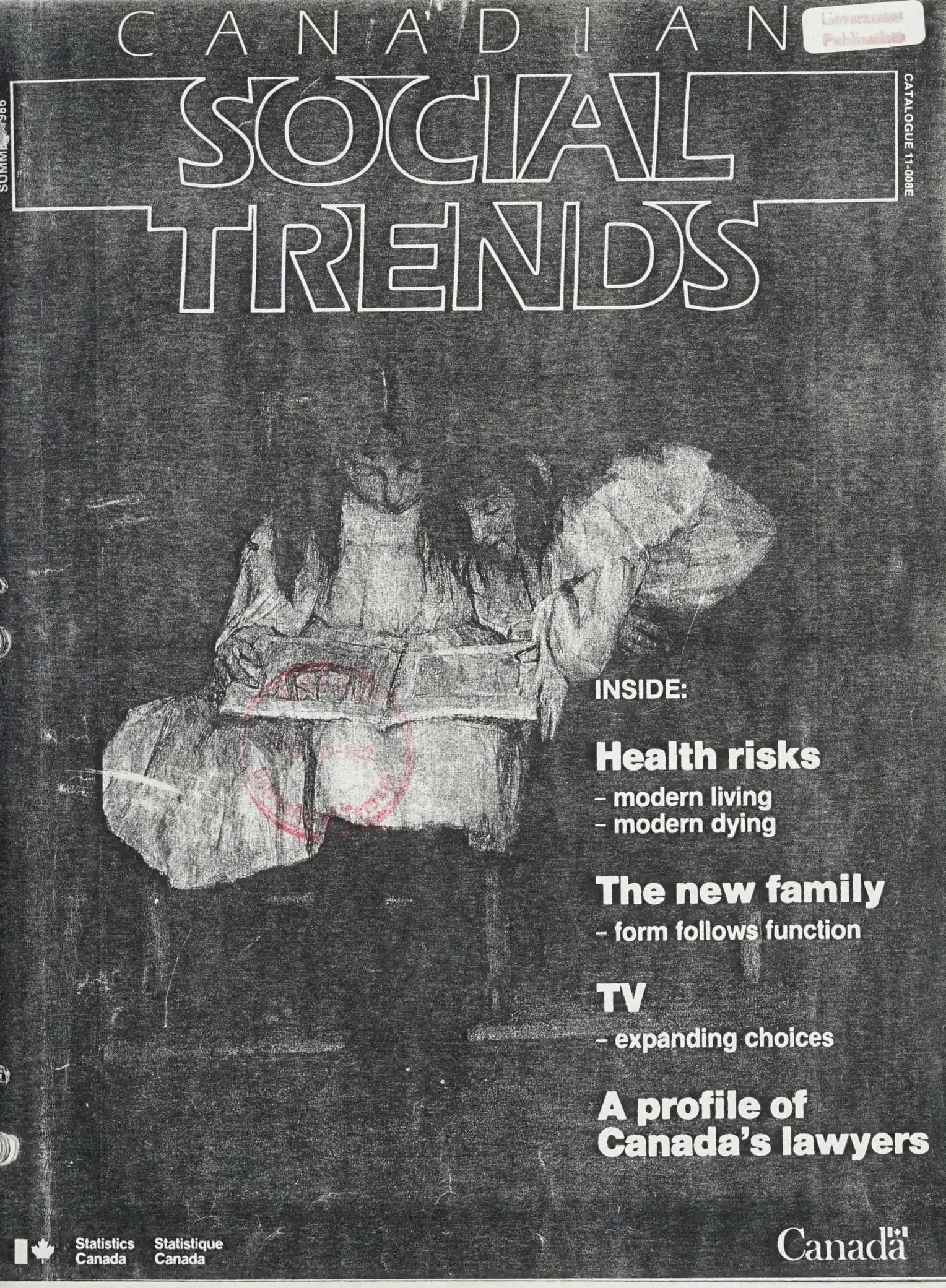
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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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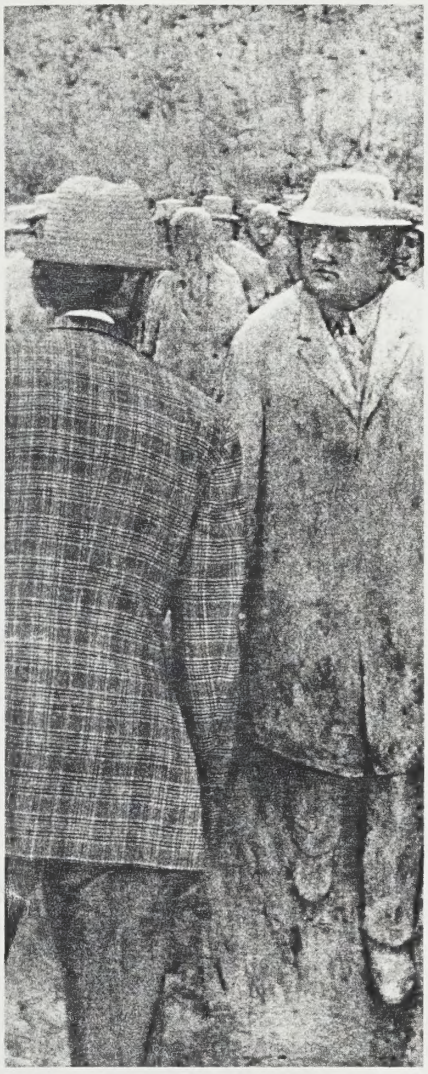


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CANADIAN

SOCIAL TRENDS

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SOCIAL TRENDS

Editor's Note

This introductory issue of CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS begins a quarterly discussion of social trends and conditions in Canada.

This continuing series is based on the recognition by Statistics Canada that a large number of Canadians — in business, labour, government, education and the media — require factual information about the direction and scope of social change so characteristic of Canadian society. Statistics Canada derives a rich base of information about social conditions in Canada from a variety of administrative and monitoring activities; this publication will highlight the most significant of these data and attempt to make evident the continuing and possibly emerging trends contained therein. CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS will also serve as a vehicle to inform its readers of other information sources and services available from Statistics Canada and how these can be obtained.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS will have several important characteristics.

- It will be TOPICAL. CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS will focus on many current social issues, problems and policies by providing the latest available information on these topics.
- CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS will be COMPREHENSIVE. Articles will cover the whole spectrum of social concerns including for example, demography, labour force, income and social security, as well as the societal systems of health, education, and justice.
- CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS will be SELECTIVE. The publication provides an ongoing trend monitoring activity which integrates data from a variety of sources to illuminate the most significant social changes affecting Canadians.
- CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS will be ANALYTICAL. Items will feature discussion by Statistics Canada analysts regarding the nature and implications of reported trends, and where possible and appropriate, projections will be provided.

The findings and reports in CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS, though authoritative, will be presented in non-technical language. Definitions and footnotes will be kept to a minimum, and graphic and tabular exhibits will be attractive and easy to understand.

In this Issue

This issue of CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS features four principal articles. The first discusses the evolution of Canadian family life over the last several decades in terms of the changing roles within families, particularly in response to the growing labour force participation of wives and mothers. As well, the growth of lone-parent families and families formed through remarriage, and the increasing tendency for Canadians to live alone are also highlighted. The article "Changing Health Risks" describes the emergence of environmentally related conditions as the primary threat to the health of Canadians. The dramatic growth in new home entertainment technology and equipment and its impact on our culture and lifestyle are documented in "Expanding the Choices."

The last of our features deals with the changing legal profession. This particular type of change is highlighted here, not because it constitutes a major social trend, but because it provides an example of the stresses and responses which occur in a particular group — in this case lawyers — as Canadian society evolves. Over time, CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS will highlight the changing characteristics of a variety of societal groups of general interest.

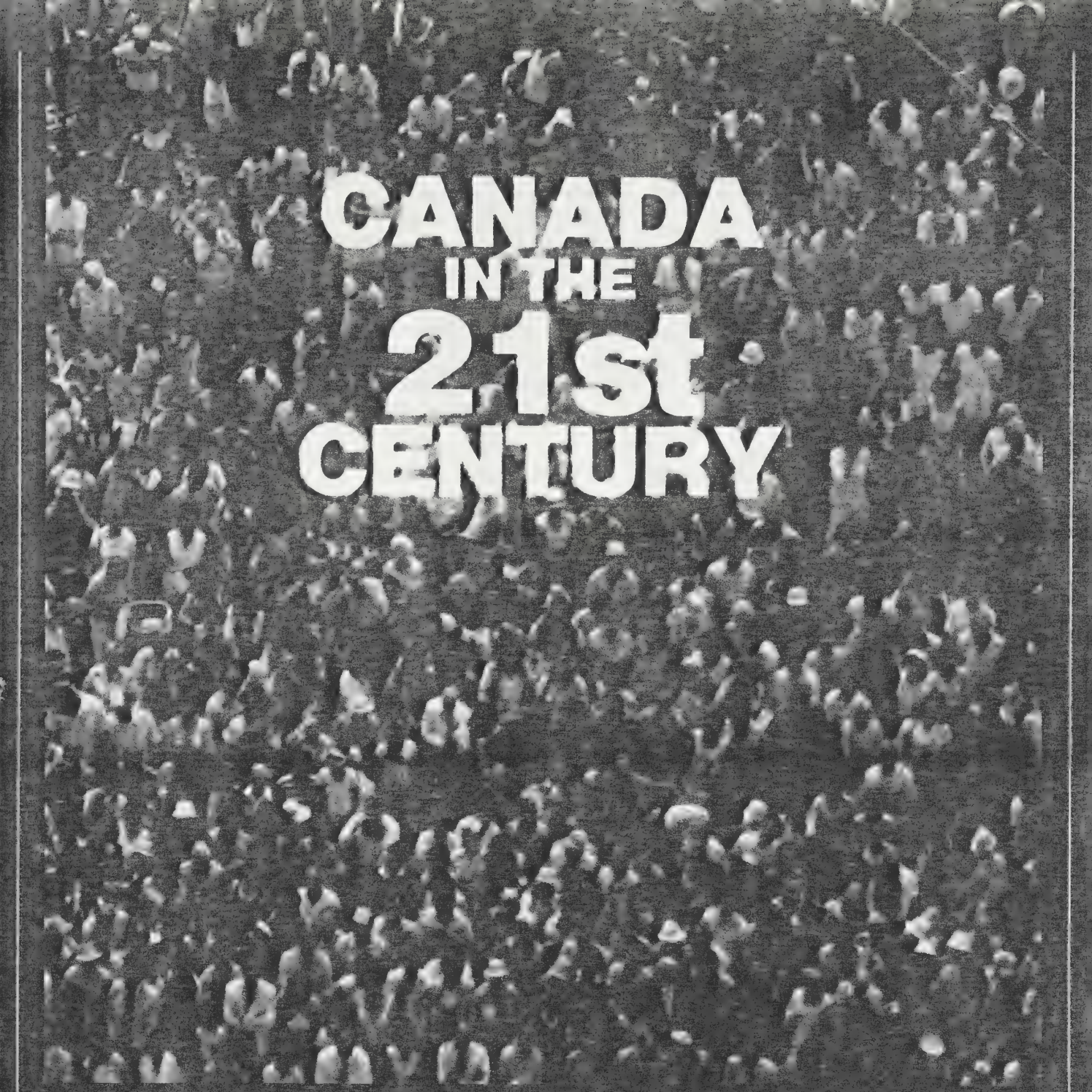
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS also features shorter trend reports which focus on single, major strands of change. In this issue we examine the growth of family based daycare, the increase in births outside of marriage, the potential population decline that may be just a generation away, the numbers of foreign students in Canadian universities, and the movement by some Canadians to secure private education for their children.

Lastly, CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS provides a list of leading social indicators. These will be published in every issue with the latest updates to permit readers to track developments in these key series.

Future issues of CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS will provide description and analysis of trends related to:

- **the part-time work explosion**
- **violent and property crime rates**
- **the economic and social situation of Canada's immigrants**
- **changing family income**
- **impaired driving**
- **Canada's pension plans**
- **educational attainment**
- **the costs of health care**
- **linguistic and ethnic diversity**
- **internal migration patterns**

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CANADA IN THE 21st CENTURY

While Canada's population has more than doubled over the last forty years (from 12 million to 25 million), the annual rate of population growth has declined steadily – from 3% in 1957, the height of the baby boom, to 1% in the 1980's. If the present trends of low fertility and low net migration continue, Canada's population will begin to decrease very early in the next century.

Should fertility continue to fall to an average of, for example, 1.4 births per women (it was estimated at just over 1.6 and falling in 1984), and if net migration climbs from its 1983 level of about 40,000 to a continuing 50,000, the population of Canada would peak at just over 28 million by 2011. Thereafter, the number of Canadians would begin to decline. Should the fertility rate decline below 1.4 and should immigration not rise, the onset of the decline would take place several years earlier.

For the past 15 years the Canadian birth rate has been below the replacement level of 2.1 births per woman in her lifetime. Declining fertility rates stem partly from fewer and later marriages, and from delayed and diminished childbearing, possibly due to attitudinal shifts among young adults about marriage, family formation and career planning. Furthermore, economic and social pressures have been moving women out of the home and into the work-force. It is unlikely that the recent decrease in fertility is related simply to an economic downturn; generally it is believed to be characteristic of modernized societies.

A concern with low fertility is shared throughout the developed world.

In Western Europe a number of governments have been monitoring population trends but few have proclaimed explicit policies to stimulate fertility. Concern is not limited to western countries, however. Many East European nations, also concerned with declining fertility rates, have implemented policies to increase birth rates. These policies, ranging from severe restrictions on abortion to generous family allowances and maternity leave, have only ever temporarily arrested the decline in national fertility rates.

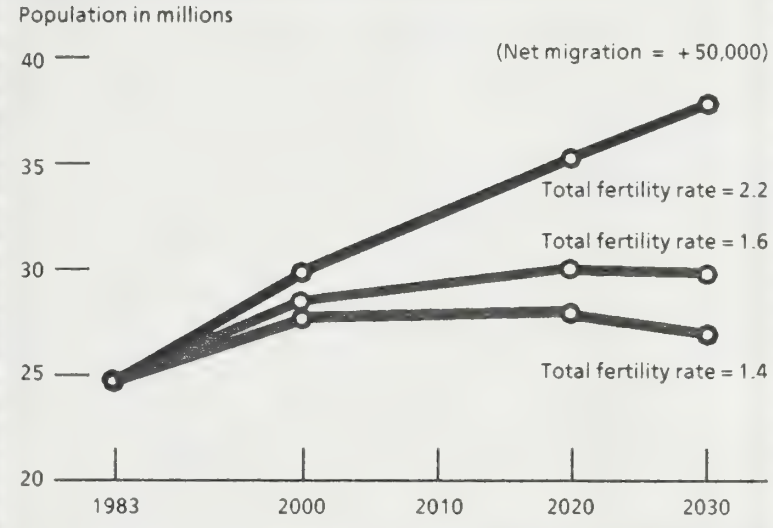
The Engines of Population Growth

Population growth results from two things: natural increase (the surplus of births over deaths) and net migration (immigration minus emigration). In Canada, natural increase is the most important component of population growth, accounting for 75% of the increase in population from 1945 to 1983.

Despite a declining fertility rate, natural increase has continued. The arrival of large numbers of women (born during the baby boom) at childbearing age has kept the actual number of births high; as well, the death rate has continued to decline. The death rate in 1983 was 700 per 100,000 population, twenty years earlier it was 760 per 100,000. Both the increase in life expectancy and the decrease in infant mortality can be linked to better health education, to public health measures such as early childhood innoculation and to advances in medical care.

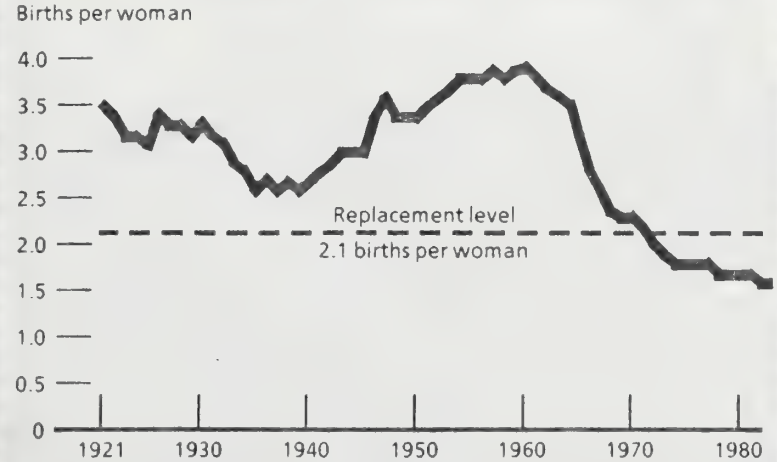
As the population ages the number of births will begin to fall and the number of deaths will increase. Barring changes in the fertility rate, natural increase will continue to slow and it is the immigration level, regulated largely in accordance with policy and employment prospects for immigrants to Canada, which will likely be the dominant factor influencing the size of Canada's population in the next century. In 1983 net migration to Canada was 40,000. According to Statistics Canada projections, if the fertility rate remains at the current level, Canada's population would still begin to decline in the 21st century, even with net migration of 100,000 per year. At present levels of immigration, the onset of a decline in Canada's population is about twenty-five years away, just as the leading edge of the baby boom nears retirement.

Projected Canadian Population Change, 1983-2030



Source : Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Total Fertility Rate,* 1921-1983



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 84-204, *Vital Statistics, Volume 1, Births and Deaths.*

*Total Fertility Rate = The number of births per woman over her lifetime.

The New Immigrant

Future immigration decisions will not only impact on the size of Canada's population but will also affect the ethnic and racial character of the nation. Immigration to Canada has changed dramatically in the last 15 years — from almost 65% European in 1968-1969 to 35% in 1981-1982. During that same period immigration from Asian countries rose from 1% to almost 40%. Immigrants are now also more likely to be students, or professionals and semi-professionals destined for the labour force. A future article in CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS will examine how immigrants fare in this country.

Observers disagree about the implications of a declining population. Some feel that national economic life would suffer from shrinking domestic markets and from a reduced workforce. Others look forward to less crowding and the potential for increased automation and productivity and the challenges of developing higher levels of domestic consumption and exports to maintain demand. Still others wonder how Canada will deal with pressures from Third World countries where growing millions seek refuge from overcrowded homelands and political or religious intolerance.

Fertility Rates in Selected Industrial Countries, 1945-1983

Canada's fertility rate (the number of births per woman in her lifetime) has dropped to unprecedented lows — but so too have the rates in other industrial countries.

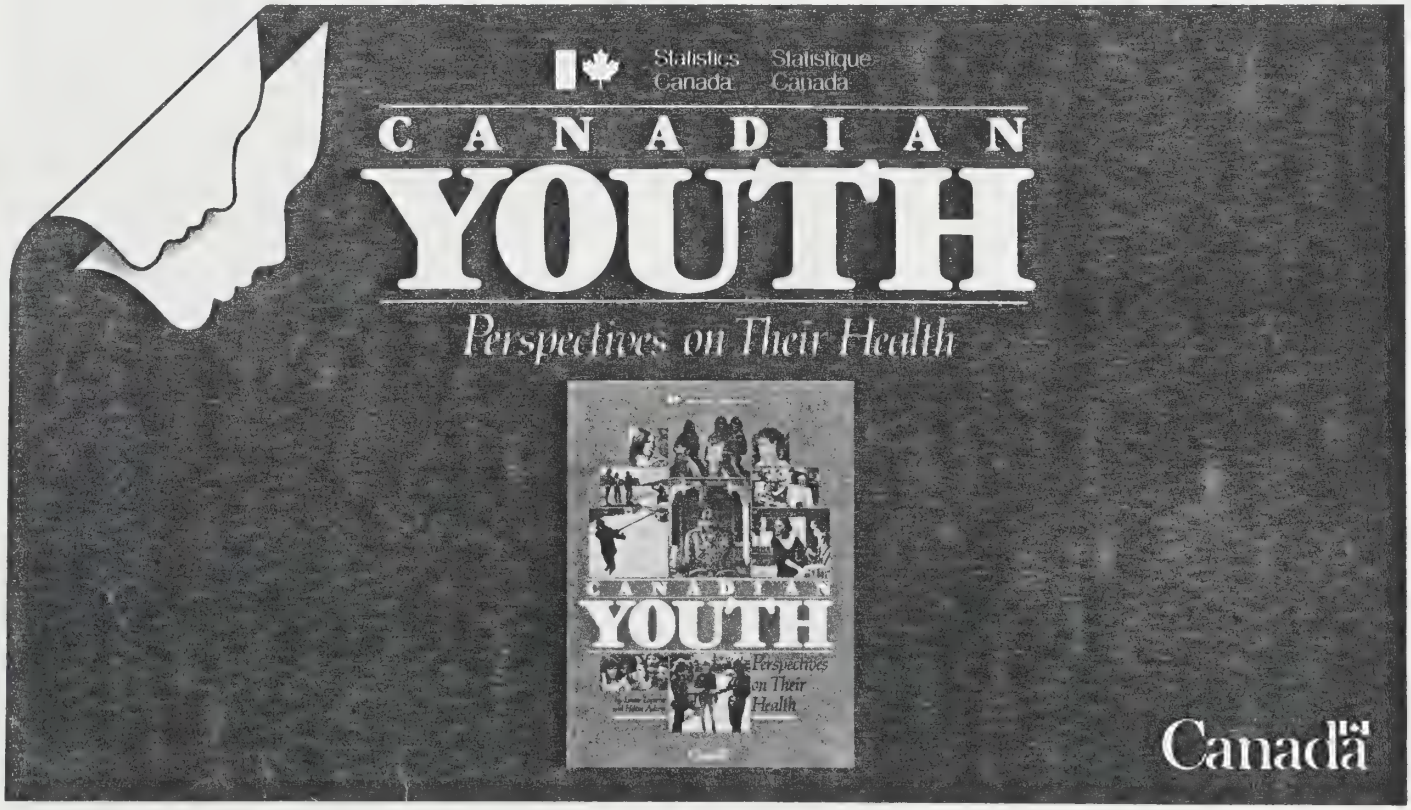
Number of births per woman in her lifetime:

	Canada	U.S.	Japan	Germany (F.R.G.)	U.K.	Denmark	U.S.S.R.	Poland
1945	3.00	2.48	–	–	–	–	–	–
1950	3.37	3.02	3.64	2.10	2.19	2.58	–	–
1955	3.75	3.52	2.36	2.14	2.22	2.58	–	–
1960	3.81	3.64	2.01	2.37	2.67	2.54	–	2.98
1965	3.11	2.93	2.14	2.51	2.81	2.60	–	2.52
1970	2.26	2.46	2.07	2.02	2.38	1.97	2.47	2.20
1975	1.82	1.80	1.93	1.45	1.79	1.93	2.41	2.27
1980	1.75	1.87	1.74	1.45	1.90	1.55	2.26	2.25
1981	1.70	1.82	–	1.44	1.82	1.43	–	2.22
1982	1.69	1.81	–	1.41	–	–	–	2.30
1983	1.68	–	–	–	–	–	–	–

Source: Statistics Canada Catalogue No. 91-524, *Fertility in Canada: From Baby-boom to Baby-bust*.

KEEPING TRACK

Quebec had the lowest marriage rate of the 10 provinces in 1984 with 5.7 marriages per 1,000 population. The highest rates were in Alberta (8.5) and P.E.I. (8.4). For Canada as a whole the marriage rate was 7.4, unchanged from 1983.



FAMILIES: DIVERSI



Y THE NEW NORM



by Mary Anne Burke

Families live on, but family structures are changing.

The family in Canada has been changing over the post-war period in both size and composition. Not only are families smaller, but lone-parent families, reconstituted families and multiple-earner families are growing as a proportion of all families. In addition, an increasing number of people are living alone. The implications of these changes are wide-ranging—in social, economic and legal terms. The overview presented below of the changing size and variation of domestic groupings sets the stage for future issues of CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS to examine these implications in detail and to present the market and social profiles of these groups.

Family Size Declining

Families have been getting smaller since the mid-1960's. As the fertility rate in Canada declined, so did average family size — from 3.9 persons in 1966 to 3.2 persons in 1982. The crude birth rate (births per 1,000 population) has dropped from 27.5 in 1959 to 15.0 in 1984.

Not only are families having fewer children, but childlessness among young married women has been increasing. In 1981, 54% of ever-married women aged 20-24 were childless, compared with 42% in 1971 and 26% in 1961. Similarly, the proportion of childless ever-married women aged 25-29 increased from from 14% in 1961, to 21% in 1971 and to 30% in 1981. Among those aged 30-34, the proportion of childless women increased from 9% in 1971 to 14% in 1981.

These trends are difficult to interpret. They do not necessarily indicate a tendency toward voluntary childlessness, anymore than they reflect simply the postponement of fertility, possibly for the sake of further education or careers. Young couples who are currently childless may still have children in the future, at least up to a certain age. The recent small increase in the fertility rate for women 35-39 indicates that for some this is the case. For others, fertility may be postponed to the point where having children is either too risk-laden or impossible. The long-term trend of this state among families has been erratic, with very high levels of childlessness also occuring during the 1930's.

Lone-parent Families Increasing

In 1981, lone-parent families numbered 713,820 or 11% of all Canadian families. Approximately 85% of lone-parent families are now headed by a woman, and approximately 50% of these female-headed families have incomes below Statistics Canada's Low-income cut-offs. (These are Statistics Canada's estimates of dollar income figures below which a family or individual is classified as having a low income.)

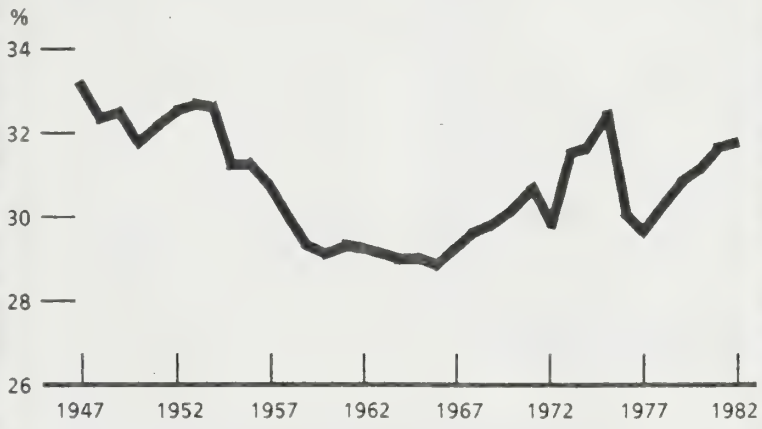
Marriage breakdown has replaced widowhood as the most important cause of lone-parenthood. In 1981, 58% of lone-parent families were the result of marriage breakdown, and 33% the result of widowhood, compared with 25% through marriage breakdown and 73% through widowhood in 1941. The proportion of lone-parent families headed by never-married parents increased from 2% to 10% over the same forty-year period.

When a marriage ends, dependent children are awarded to their mothers by the courts in three out of

four cases. In fact, the proportion of cases in which the mother was awarded custody increased from 73% in 1970 to 77% in 1982. The number of dependent children involved annually in divorce increased from 20,000 in 1969 to 68,600 in 1983, and is a major contributor to the growing number of children in lone-parent families.

Over the period 1977 to 1982, the number of children under age 18 in lone-parent families increased from 701,100 to 761,000, or from 10% to 12% of all Canadian children. The majority of lone-parent children are aged 6 to 14, but the number of preschoolers is growing. Again, from 1977 to 1982, the number of children under age six living in lone-parent families increased from 144,900 to 191,200, or from 22% to 25% of all children in lone-parent families.

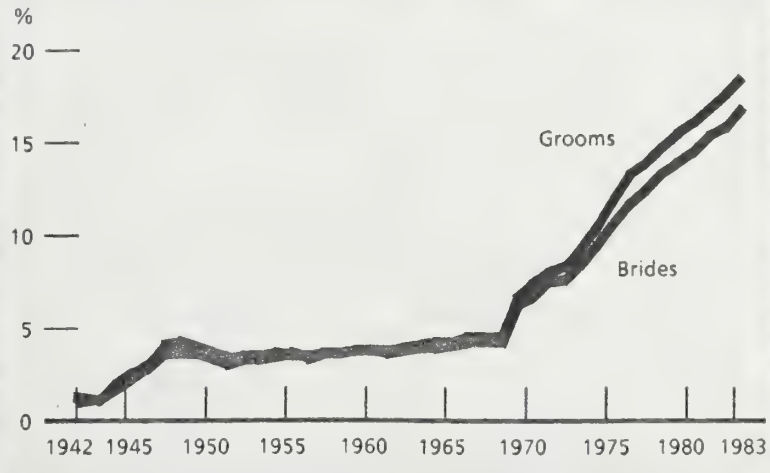
Childless Families* as a Percentage of All Families, 1947-1982



Source : Statistics Canada, Revised Intercensal Estimates, Demography Division; and Catalogue No. 91-204, *Estimates of Families for Canada and the Provinces.*

* Includes empty-nest families.

Remarriages* as a Percentage of All Marriages, 1942-1983



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 84-205, *Vital Statistics, Volume II, Marriages and Divorces.*

* Includes remarriages of divorced persons only, not remarriages of widows or widowers.

The Wave of Remarriages

An increasing proportion of marriages are remarriages (the bride and/or groom have been married before). In 1983, 17% of brides and 19% of grooms were previously divorced, compared with 4% of both in 1962, and 1% of both in 1942.

The percentage of brides and grooms previously widowed has remained relatively constant, currently accounting for 3% of each. Other brides or grooms may have previously been involved in common-law unions and may bring children with them into the new relationship. In 1981, 6% of all census families were common-law unions, but no comparable data exist on past common-law living arrangements.

With more Canadian families resulting from second or subsequent marriages, a growing number of children are living with one biological parent and seeing the other, if at all, in a different family setting.

More Multiple-earner Families

In 1981, 60% of all Canadian economic families had two or more wage-

Family Definitions

Economic Family:

Refers to a group of two or more persons who live in the same dwelling and are related to each other by blood, marriage or adoption. Persons living common-law are considered, for census purposes, as now married regardless of their legal marital status; they accordingly are counted as married couples in the economic family figures.

Census Family:

Refers to a husband and a wife (with or without children who have never married, regardless of age), or a lone parent of any marital status, with one or more children (who have never married, regardless of age), living in the same dwelling. For census purposes, persons living in a common-law type of arrangement are considered as now married, regardless of their legal marital status; they accordingly are counted as a husband-wife family in the census family figures.

earners. That figure is nearly double the 1951 figure of 33%. In most of these multiple-earner families, both the husband and wife were employed. In addition, many of these new multiple-earner families have young children as is evidenced by the labour force participation rate for women with children under three years of age which rose from 31% in 1975 to 52% in 1984.

The contribution of wives' income to total family income increased by almost 60%, from 14.7% in 1971 to 23.4% in 1982.

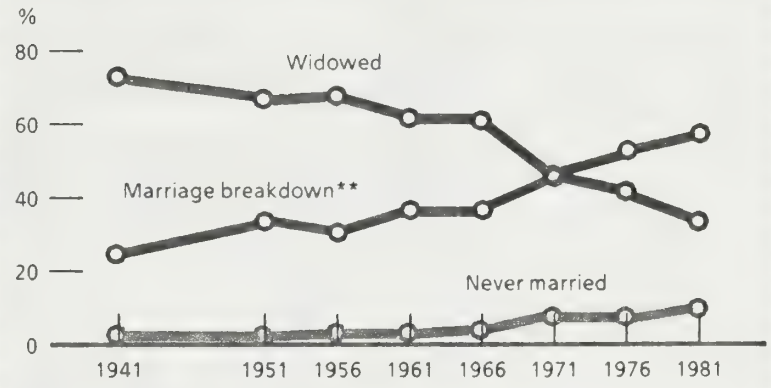
A family's income level is directly related to the number of earners. An interesting picture emerges if we take all economic families reporting income and divide them into five income groups from the lowest to the highest (each with 20% of the families and called a "quintile"). In 1983, of families with incomes in the top 20% (or highest quintile), 87% reported two or more earners, compared to 21% of families with incomes in the bottom 20% (or lowest quintile). Conversely, 43% of families in the bottom 20% reported no income earners, compared to 1% of those in the top 20%.

Low-income Families

The two-earner family has become a wide-spread reality: it preserves, for many, standards of living and provides resilience in the face of unemployment and other economic changes. Families with one parent at home to raise children, lone-parent families or families with an unemployed spouse are consequently at an economic disadvantage and tend to be over-represented among low-income families according to Statistics Canada's 1978-based Low-income cut-offs. Some of the major characteristics of low-income families in 1983 were:

- One-earner families constituted 29% of all families, yet 41% of all low-income families.
- Lone-parent families headed by women constituted 9% of all families and 30% of all low-income families.
- Families with no income earners represented 12% of all families yet 33% of all low-income families.
- Families reporting transfer payments as their main income source represented 15% of all families, yet constituted 52% of all low-income families.
- Families with the family head employed part-time represented 21% of all families and 35% of all low-income families.

Lone-parent Families* by Cause, 1941-1981



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 92-935, Census of Canada, *Persons, Children at Home, Structure and Type, Living Arrangements;* and Catalogue Nos. 98-1941, 98-1951, 93-507, 93-516, 93-611, 93-716, and 93-833.

* Includes both male and female headed lone-parent families.

** Includes divorce and separation.

Persons Living Alone by Age Group, 1971 and 1981

	Women		Men	
Age Group	1971	1981	1971	1981
15-24	34,670	100,820	35,175	100,270
25-34	39,940	148,455	55,785	198,425
15-34	74,160	249,275	90,960	298,695
35-44	29,315	63,270	43,805	95,880
45-54	51,795	78,075	47,670	83,480
55-64	100,970	162,235	52,690	84,515
65 and over	232,935	434,640	86,585	131,070
Total population aged 15 and over living alone	489,625	987,495	321,710	693,640
	As a % of the population in the same age group			
15-24	1.7	4.4	1.7	4.3
25-34	2.8	7.0	3.8	9.4
15-34	2.2	5.6	2.6	7.0
35-44	2.4	4.3	3.4	6.4
45-54	4.5	6.3	4.2	6.6
55-64	11.5	14.4	6.2	8.2
65 and over	24.2	32.2	11.1	13.0
Total population aged 15 and over living alone	6.4	10.3	4.3	7.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue Nos. 93-707, ***Households by Type Showing Selected Characteristics of Head***, 92-730, ***Marital Status by Age Group***; and 92-905, ***Persons, Children at Home, Structure and Type, Living Arrangements***.

Living Alone

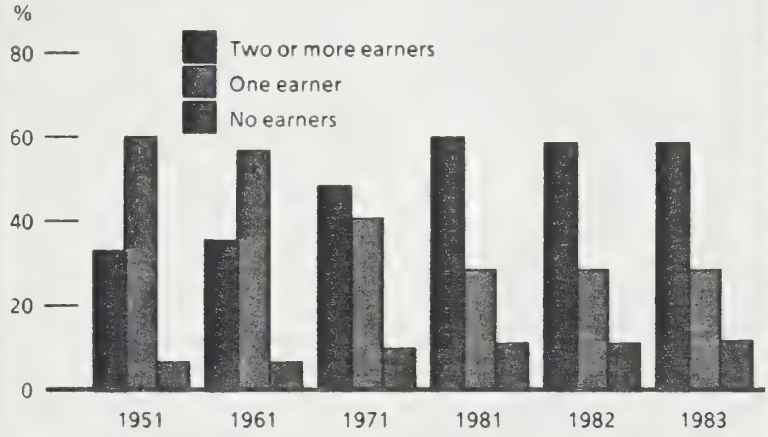
The proportion of Canadians living alone has grown rapidly. In 1981, more than 20% of all households and 7% of the overall Canadian population were people living alone, compared with 13% of households and 4% of the total population in 1971. Living alone has become more common for all age groups, with the greatest increases occurring among the elderly and the young.

One quarter of the population over age 65 are living on their own. In 1981, 434,640 or 32% of women over age 65, and 131,070 or 13% of men over age 65 lived alone. These figures represent increases of eight percentage points for women and two for men since 1971.

Elderly women living alone outnumber elderly men who live alone for several reasons. There are more women beyond age 65 due to the longer life expectancy enjoyed by women. Many women experience extended periods of widowhood, since they tend to marry men several years older than themselves, and men on average die younger.

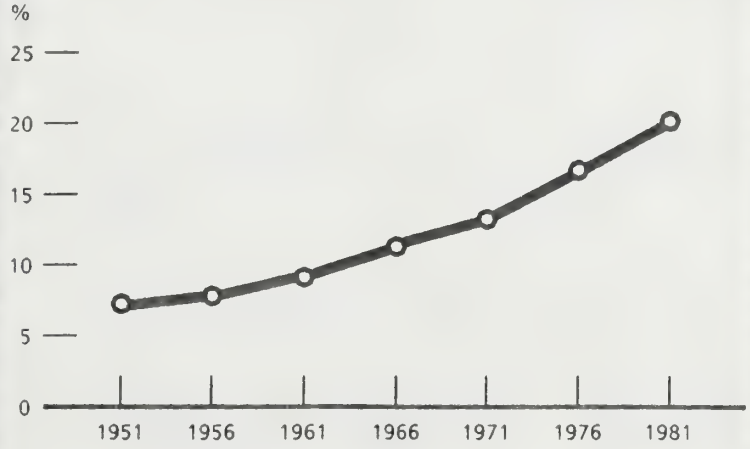
The growth of the elderly population living alone is likely to continue. According to projections by Statistics Canada, the number of women over age 65 will nearly double and the number of men over age 65 will increase by more than 50% by the year 2006. As a result, elderly women will make up an estimated 8% of the Canadian population in 2006, while elderly men will constitute 6% of all Canadians that year. The number of elderly persons living alone in the future could be further augmented if many of the young people currently living alone do not form lasting unions in later life.

Distribution of Families by Number of Earners, 1951-1983



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue Nos. 13-581, *Charting Canadian Incomes, 1951-1981;* and 13-207, *Income Distributions by Size in Canada.*

One-person Households as a Percentage of All Households, 1951-1981



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue Nos. 93-809, Census of Canada, *Private Households, by Marital Status, Sex and Age of Head;* and 92-903, Census of Canada, *Occupied Dwellings, Type and Tenure.*

The Young Alone

In 1981, there were 548,000 people aged 15 to 34 living alone, compared to 166,000 in 1971. The percentage of people between age 15 and 34 living alone more than doubled between 1971 and 1981, increasing from 2% to 6% of this age group.

Factors that have influenced this development include: the postponement of marriage, increases in the number of those who never marry, rising divorce rates and the seeking of higher levels of education.

Young people who live by themselves differ from those who live with others. For example, they are twice as likely to have a university degree, less likely to be unemployed, and more likely to be in white collar or professional occupations and have higher incomes.

And so ...

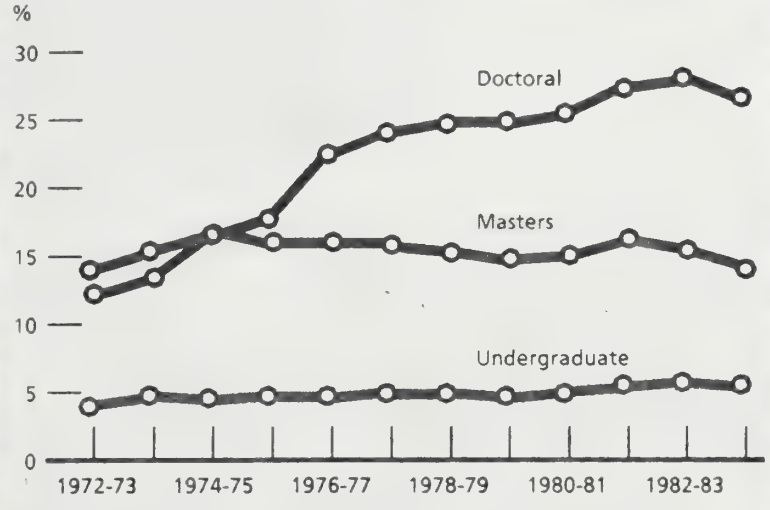
While, the implications of these changing family and living arrangements are beyond the scope of this overview, there are some obvious issues which they bring to mind: the possibility of shrinking and changing domestic markets; increasing numbers of low-income women and children; demand for more and alternative forms of child care; new divorce and family laws related to increased remarriage and lone parenthood; and new requirements for housing and other services for the evolving Canadian family.

FOREIGN STUDENTS

Foreign student enrolment is increasing as a proportion of total full-time university enrolment in Canada, particularly at the graduate level. Between the academic years 1972-73 and 1983-84, full-time enrolment of foreign students at the undergraduate level increased from 4% to 6% of the total; full-time foreign Masters students increased from 12% to 14%; and full-time foreign Doctoral students from 14% to 27%. At the Doctoral level, some fields of study have higher than average concentrations of foreign students. According to data available for the 1981-82 to 1983-84 academic years, foreign students constituted more than 50% of Doctoral students in Engineering and Applied Sciences and more than 35% in Mathematics.



Foreign Students as a Percentage of Full-time University Enrolment by Level, 1972-73 to 1983-84



Source : Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, University Student Information System.

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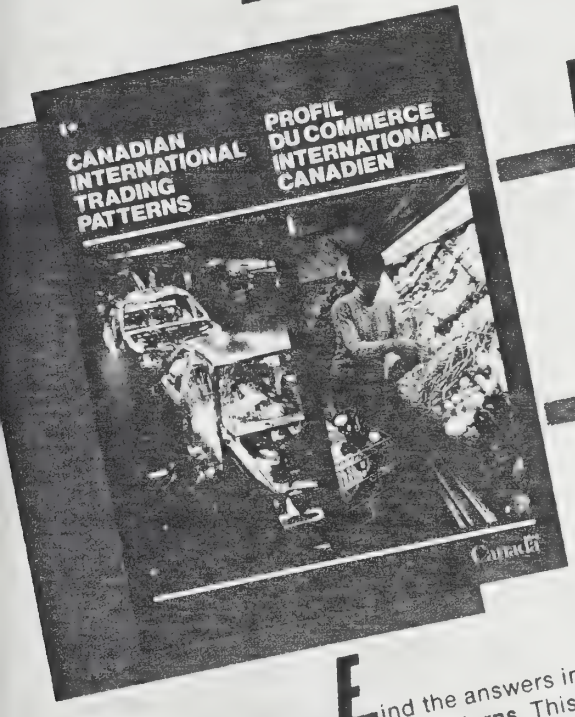
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A calendar of events that have had a major effect on trade, such as the 1984 shutdown of pulp and paper mills in British Columbia, is also featured.

Canadian International Trading Patterns, Catalogue No. 65-503C, is available for $25.00 in Canada ($26.00 elsewhere) from Publication Sales and Services, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Canada K1A 0T6. Telephone: (613) 993-7276.

Canada

Statistics Canada / Statistique Canada



by Ted Wannell and Craig McKie

Cable television, satellites and VCR's are creating a new home entertainment and information environment.

Electronic entertainment and information technology have arrived with a vengeance. While electronic entertainment devices are available in many forms, it is above all the television with attendant cable, converter and video-cassette-recorder which supplies entertainment and information to the Canadian household. As entertainment equipment has become more sophisticated, so has the viewing audience: advertisers and broadcasters can no longer count on an audience bound to them by lack of programme choice. The explosion of television choices overrides geographic borders (some Canadian rural communities now receive the local news of Edmonton, Hamilton, Montreal, Atlanta or Detroit) and remote channel controls enable viewers to avoid commercials and to sample a dozen channels in just a few seconds.

Television

Television reached its present popularity among Canadians in just a few decades. In 1985, about the same number of Canadian households had televisions (98.4%) as had telephones (98.2%). Most households had at least one colour television (91.4%). Figures from the Canadian Time Use Pilot Study in 1981 showed that, on average, respondents spent over three hours a day watching television; the figure increased slightly if they subscribed to cable and slightly more again if they both subscribed to cable and owned a converter. For two of the average three daily hours of viewing, television was the primary activity, that is, the sole focus of attention, while the remaining hour was shared with other activities such as eating or conversation.

Cable Television

To expand their viewing choices and enhance the technical quality of signals received, the majority of Canadian households now subscribe to cable television. In 1985, about 62% of Canadian households subscribed to cable, with regional penetration ranging from under 45% in Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island and Saskatchewan to over 80% in British Columbia. Ontario, Alberta and Manitoba occupied the middle ground with 68%, 63% and 62% respectively of their households subscribing. In 1984, the National Cable Television Association in the United States estimated that 40% of all U.S. households subscribed to cable.

The high level of cable penetration in Canada is significant in that cable can deliver (over and above additional television channels) a broad range of electronic services, the potential of which is as yet largely undeveloped. The services being offered or tested (although not in every area) include several pay television options, home security monitoring, interactive information retrieval, teleshopping, opinion polling and remote computing.

The direct charges to the consumer for cable and pay television do not reflect the whole cost of providing radio and television services in Canada. The overall cost of the electronic media is substantial. The private radio industry had revenues of $559 million in the year ending August 31, 1984 — ultimately paid for by customers; the private television industry had revenues of $900 million. The net operating cost of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation was $935 million in the same year with revenues of $161 million. (Figures taken from Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 56-204, *Radio and Television Broadcasting, 1984.*)

Many Canadian viewers pay for added programming choices. The 5.3 million cable subscribers in March 1984 paid an average of $10 per month for this service. Half of Canada's cable subscribers also purchase a converter, a one-time expense of between $50 and $150, which adds to the range of broadcast channels and special information services available. Converters were present in 31% of all Canadian households in March 1984, with Ontario cable subscribers the most likely to have these devices (68% of all subscribers).

Pay Television

A more recent arrival on the Canadian cable television scene is pay television — extra channels which are obtainable only upon payment of an additional fee. Over 480,000 households subscribed to pay television in early 1984 at an additional cost varying from $8 to $20 a month (both cable service and a converter are prerequisites). Pay television was most in evidence in Alberta (9% of all households). Overall, pay services were present in 5% of Canadian households in March 1984, though the subsequent alteration of

Expenditure on Home Entertainment Equipment and Services, 1982

All Families and Unattached Individuals

	Average Expenditure in Dollars	Percent Reporting an Expenditure
Total Home Entertainment Equipment and Services	$249.40	71.9%
Transceivers	1.10	0.4
Radio Sets (excl. combinations)	6.40	7.7
Radio Combinations	12.50	8.1
Colour Televisions	53.90	8.1
Black & White Televisions	3.40	2.9
Record Players	1.40	1.1
Audio Taperecorders/Players	5.20	3.6
Video Taperecorders/Players	21.60	2.7
Electronic Equipment Components	51.90	7.7
Records & Audio Tapes	53.90	56.6
Video Tapes & Discs	6.10	5.6
Other Home Entertainment Equipment	10.50	6.2
Parts Purchased Separately	2.10	2.2
Rental of Equipment (incl. recordings)	8.30	6.7
Maintenance and Repair	11.00	12.8

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 62-555, *Family Expenditure in Canada, 1982*

the rate structure and the addition of new services may have increased this number.

An additional set of less expensive pay services was introduced nationally in 1984. These included Much Music, The Sports Network, plus a mix drawn from satellite transmissions such as the Cable News Network, Arts and Entertainment, The Nashville Network and Financial News. Supplementary pay services to be introduced in the near future will still further augment the number of channels available to the cable subscriber. Not all premium channels present entertainment programming. Several of these channels are explicitly devoted to special interest information. Specialty programming for small minorities of viewers (and the consequent fragmentation of the viewing public) is already a feature of direct satellite transmission.

Satellite Broadcasting

Many additional channels are available with satellite transmission reception equipment. The viewer may choose from among dozens of channels rebroadcast from satellites. Each of the many satellites can carry simultaneously as many as 24 television channels plus additional sound transmissions. The price of home reception equipment now starts at about $1,000 for the simplest system but may run to many thousands of dollars for the most sophisticated. Advertisers and broadcasters are now wondering whether future satellite broadcasting will be brought into Canadian homes via existing cable systems or directly from the broadcast satellites. Satellite transmission offers the viewers a wide variety of programming, for example, programming in Spanish (Galavision) and programmes from Japanese network sources (JISO), religious broadcasting, a reading service for the blind and horse racing coverage.

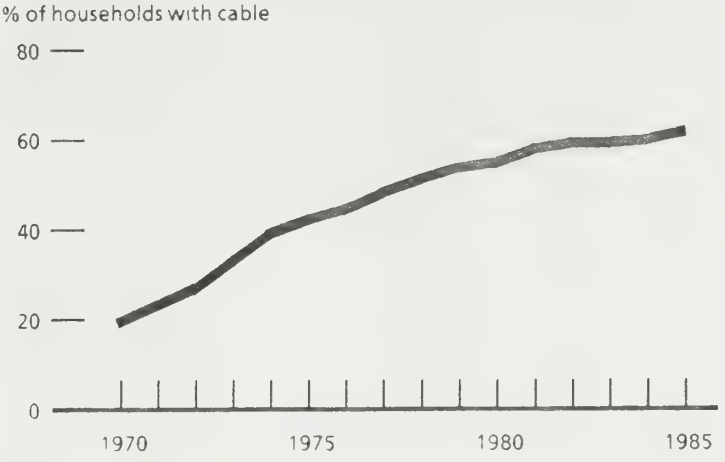
VCR's — The Agents of Change

Many households now augment and manipulate their viewing further with video-cassette recorders (VCR's). In May 1985, 2.1 million households, 23% of the total, possessed these devices. The VCR allows the viewer to watch programmes when convenient and not necessarily when the programme is broadcast. The VCR also permits viewers to bypass advertising, thus reducing the time needed to view a given programme. Some devices now on the market can actually delete commercials from the unattended recording of programmes.

Imports of VCR's, priced between $400 and $2,000, grew from a trickle in 1975 to 340,000 units in 1982 (valued at $163 million), and then exploded to 734,000 units in 1983 ($288 million), and to 1,265,000 units in 1984 ($462 million). From 1975 to 1984, the value of blank and pre-recorded videotape imports increased from about $8 million to over $113 million.

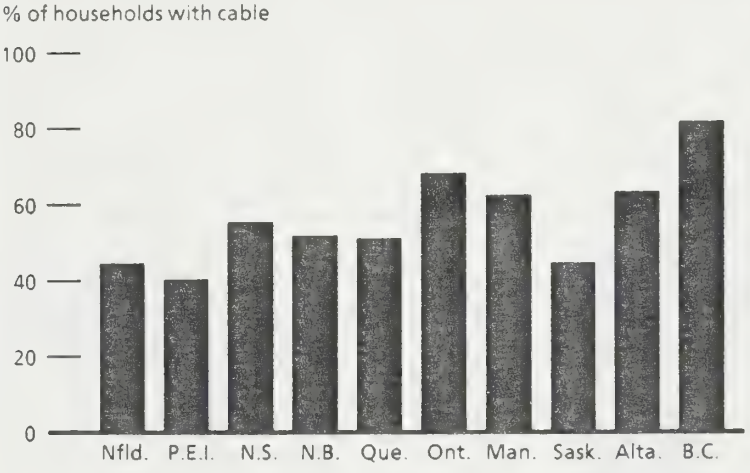
How Canadians use or will come to use VCR's is now a matter of much discussion. The deletion of commercials is one obvious issue for advertisers and broadcasters alike. Others include the new-found capacity of viewers to watch taped broadcasts at times other than those intended, and the editing, duplication, resale and informal trading of taped material, much of which is labelled as copyright. Also, the trade in pre-recorded tapes of an allegedly pornographic nature or in tapes recorded in the home from "adult" channels (such as American Extasy,

Cable Television Penetration, 1970-1985



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue Nos. 56-205, *Cable Television;* and 64-202, *Household Facilities and Equipment.*

Cable Television Penetration by Province, 1985



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 64-202, *Household Facilities and Equipment.*

From the 1981 Canadian Time Use Pilot Study

The Time Use Pilot Study was based on a small sample and did not reflect seasonal variation; nevertheless, the figures strongly suggest that television is the prime entertainment activity for all age groups and for both sexes. While some activities, such as listening to recorded music, tend to decline with age, television, if anything, increases — the highest viewing totals are found in the oldest age group.

Time Spent on Television and Records or Tapes, 1981

	Age of Respondent			
	Less than 25	25-39	40-55	56 and over
Average minutes per day spent watching television:				
Males -				
as primary activity	116	126	118	189
as secondary activity	46	46	40	41
Females -				
as primary activity	98	85	111	155
as secondary activity	66	79	83	55
Average minutes per day listening to records or tapes:				
Males -				
as primary activity	11	3	3	2
as secondary activity	33	22	8	5
Females -				
as primary activity	5	3	1	0
as secondary activity	40	22	15	3

material dubbed in Canada, for example. In 1982, cable subscribers spent less time than non-subscribers watching Canadian stations (2.3 hours compared to 2.8 hours) and less time watching Canadian programming (1.0 hour compared to 1.3 hours), according to the Statistics Canada data bank on television viewing. Cable subscribers and non-subscribers watched just about the same types of programmes, with the cable subscriber's small amount of added viewing time largely devoted to foreign-produced entertainment programming. While foreign programming seemed to dominate in the entertainment category for all viewers, Canadian programmes dominated in the news, public affairs and sports categories.

Competing Activities

The 1981 Canadian Time Use Pilot Study (the full study was never carried out) showed that the only leisure activity close to television viewing, in terms of time spent, is radio listening. Radios were present in 99% of Canadian households in 1985, however, to

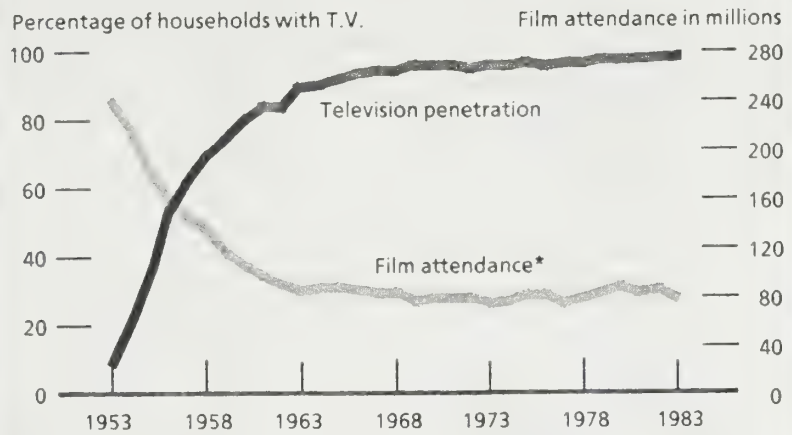
The Pleasure Channel, and The Playboy Channel) available from satellite transmissions has concerned many who feel that provincial censorship of movies should be extended to private viewing in the home. As with international transmission of data by computer, there are few presently feasible controls over the reception of satellite broadcast transmissions or illegal taping.

Canadian Content

While cable and satellite transmissions hold the promise of many innovative services for the future, some Canadian and American stations and services can now be obtained only on cable. Serious questions have been raised about the cultural influence of so much programming imported from or through the United States. Present Canadian Radio-Television and Telecommunications Commission (CRTC) regulations impose limits on non-Canadian programming during the prime viewing hours in the evening. However, these quotas differ, depending on the ownership of stations or networks, and are additionally qualified by particular concessions — giving Canadian status to official co-productions and partial recognition to certain



Film Attendance and Television Penetration, 1953-1983



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 63-207, *Motion Picture Theatres and Film Distributors.*
Statistics Canada Catalogue No. 64-202, *Household Facilities and Equipment.*
*Does not include drive-ins.

a large extent, radio listening is a background activity. In 1981, the average Canadian was in the presence of a functioning radio for two hours a day, but for more than 95% of that time some other activity had primacy.

As with television content, the CRTC requires a degree of Canadian content in radio broadcasting. It asks that 30% of musical selections on AM stations conform to the definition of Canadian content and that FM stations negotiate a quota as a term of their operating licenses.

There are no leisure activities which remotely compare to television viewing and radio listening, in terms of time spent. Listening to records and tapes is similar to radio listening. Only about 20 minutes of the average respondent's day was spent listening to records or tapes in 1981 and for only several minutes was it a primary activity.

Reading

As one would expect, Canadians in the aggregate spend far less time reading than watching television or listening to the radio. Still, in 1981, they spent just under an hour a day reading newspapers, books or magazines. Just over a third of the population read a newspaper daily and about three-quarters will read one at least occasionally. Canadian newspaper purchasers supported a circulation of 5.6 million copies in 1983. Of this total, 4.6 million were printed in English. Non-dailies had an additional circulation of 1.3 million per issue. Circulation figures have been almost stable since the early 1970's. However, since the population has been increasing, circulation per capita has actually declined somewhat.

While only a fifth of the respondents in the Time Use Pilot Study read a book on a given day, reading for them tended to be an engrossing activity not shared with other pursuits, especially where instructional materials are concerned. Book readers read an average of an hour and a half a day and consider reading books a primary activity for about 75% of that time (in marked contrast to newspaper readers — 50% of

More Tapes, Fewer Records

Production and import figures indicate that Canadians bought about 48 million Canadian manufactured records in 1984 (down from 51 million in 1983) and 36 million prerecorded tapes (up from 28 million in 1983). Only a small percentage of the material is of Canadian origin (14% of the total revenue in 1983, down 1% from 15% in 1982), though most of the manufacturing is done in Canada, even with foreign material. Firms controlled by Canadians accounted for only about one sixth of the records and tapes shipped, but these companies produced half the Canadian content. The value of imports of consumer electronics (including tuners, turntables, parts and car radios, but excluding videocassette recorders) amounted to $817 million in 1984.

Book Publishing in Canada

Although revenues from the sales of books in Canada exceed $1 billion annually ($1.2 billion in 1983) foreign competition poses a substantial challenge for Canadian book publishers. Only $309 million of the 1983 total revenue came from the sale of titles that originated in and were published in Canada. The remainder came from sales of imports by Canadian-based publishers ($244 million), by exclusive agents for foreign-based publishers ($106 million) or by other importers such as book clubs ($585 million). While foreign-controlled firms dominate the textbook market, Canadian-controlled firms compete mainly in the more volatile general interest book market.



According to the 1981 Census, 3.6 million Canadians aged 15 and older — 19% of that population group — were immigrants, that is, a permanent resident of Canada who is not Canadian by birth.

Trends in Competing Public Entertainments

There is another class of entertainment competing for Canadians' time: that which requires travel or the purchase of an admission ticket. This type of activity has suffered because of the transition to electronic home entertainment and now constitutes much less of the average time budget. In 1981, 5% or less of the population attended away-from-home performing arts and spectator sports. Even active pastimes such as hobbies and sports consumed far more of our time than film-going or live theatre performances. One sixth of the population spent an average of two hours per day at their hobbies. A slightly greater proportion, about one-fifth, were involved in a sport or recreation activity, but for a shorter time (one and one-quarter hours).

In 1982, Canadians made 97.3 million visits to movie theatres (87.6 million at regular theatres, 9.7 million at drive-ins) — down from a peak of 256 million visits by a much smaller population in 1952. The 1982 figures translate to an average of four feature films per person per year, a level which has been stable for a decade. In 1982, 503 new theatrical feature films were distributed for viewing in Canada, of which only 35 were of Canadian origin.

The performing arts constitute the smallest of all the entertainment components. Statistics Canada figures are collected from not-for-profit arts organisations and do not include admissions to commercial ventures such as rock shows. Not-for-profit performing arts events attracted audiences totalling 9.7 million to approximately 28,000 performances in 1982. Theatre had the highest attendance (6.3 million) and the highest number of performances (24,049), but averaged just over 260 attendees per performance. Serious music events attracted a total attendance of 2 million, while the dance drew just under one million. Opera performances attracted 346,000 to 486 performances. Approximately one half of the budgets of performing arts companies were derived from subsidies in 1981 ($67 million of a total $128 million); and of the total subsidies, approximately two thirds were derived from the public sector. Three quarters of performing arts' budgets went to salaries.

the time they read as a primary activity). Like book sales, the circulation of library books is also an indication of reading. In 1982, borrowers took out 144 million books, an increase of 10% over the previous year.

Magazine reading captures even less of Canadians' time than either newspaper or book reading. On any given day in 1981, only about 13% of Canadians could be found reading a magazine of any description, with the average reader spending an hour on this activity. Magazine reading is similar to newspaper reading in that about half the time readers tend to be doing something else while reading.

Tomorrow's Programmes

It is evident that television has captured the attention of Canadians as a source of information and entertainment. If there is a central question here it might well be: what will fill Canadians' television windows in the future? Until fairly recently, the time available was filled by a limited number of broadcasting sources. Today the proliferation of channels, the development of minority interest programming and videotaping challenge whatever homogeneity of viewing audience remains. For broadcasters and advertisers, the expansion of choice is an indication of fragmentation; for viewers, the expansion of choice is a bonanza.

A FURTHER LOOK AT THE FAMILY IN CONTEMPORARY CANADA

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- adoption
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- death of spouse
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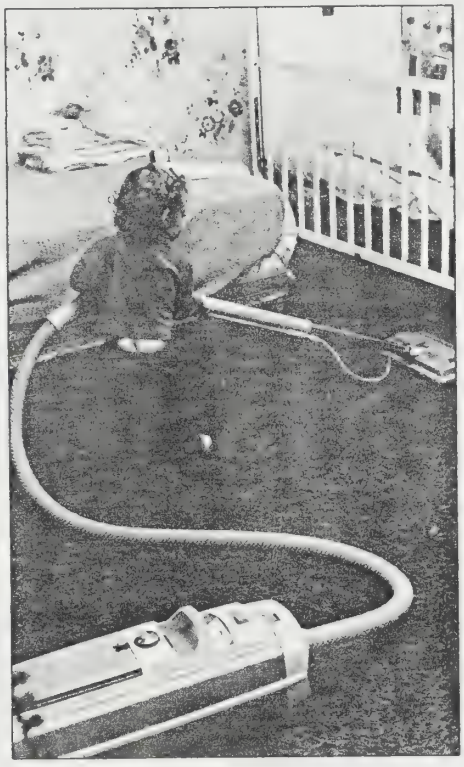
- lone-parent families
- common-law unions
- the impact of work decisions on family experience.



Order the **Family History Survey: Preliminary Findings**, Catalogue No. 99-955, $20 in Canada, $21 in Canadian funds or equivalent in other countries, from Publication Sales and Services, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0T6 or from your nearest Statistics Canada Regional Office.

And watch for news of the release of more information from the Family History Survey in future editions of **Canadian Social Trends**.

CHILD CARE



Shifting family behaviour, particularly the increase in the number of mothers working outside the home, has created a need for alternatives to the "stay-at-home" mother form of child care.

Statistics Canada's 1981 Survey of Child Care Arrangements found that more than half (52%) of all children under age six were cared for by someone other than their parents on a regular basis. Child care can be provided in many forms, from licensed day care centres and licensed family day care to private care by a nanny, neighbour or relative. In 1980, only 12% of preschool children with mothers in the labour force were in licensed family or centre day care on a full-time basis.

In 1984, there were more than 840,000 preschoolers (under age 6) and 1.6 million school age children (aged 6-12) whose mothers were in the labour force. Thus, as many as 2.5 million children may have been in need of some form of alternate child care arrangements.

Most parents in need of child care services turn to informal, privately arranged types of care. The charges for such unlicensed care may sometimes fall outside of normal business practices and form part of the so-called "underground economy".

There were 172,000 day care spaces in 1984, up from 139,000 in 1983. (Part of the increase between 1983 and 1984, however, resulted from the first time reporting by Quebec of 13,000 out-of-school day care spaces which were offered through the school system.) About 35,000 day care spaces in 1984 were reserved for children under three years of age. Care for children under three represents a high cost, labour-intensive care which can cost parents as much as one-third more than the cost for an older child.

The majority of licensed spaces are in day care centres rather than in family day care. Of the day care centres, 14% are publicly sponsored, 48% are parent or community sponsored, and 38% are commercial.

The continuing movement of mothers into the labour force, and the increase in lone-parent families will provide a growing demand for a variety of forms of child care. Some employers in the private and public sectors are responding to this demand by offering their employees child care associated with the work-place. However, privately arranged, unlicensed child care predominates at present.

Definitions

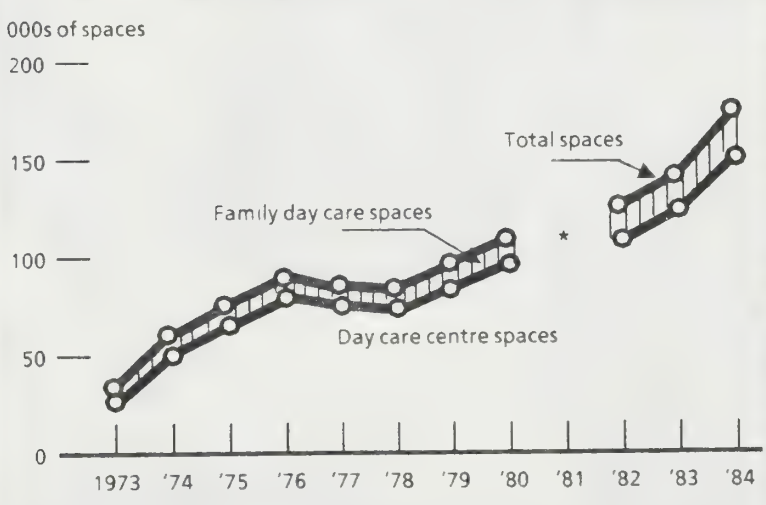
DAY CARE FACILITY: a licensed or provincially approved centre or private home which cares for children outside their own home for eight to ten hours per day.

CENTRE CARE: a licensed day care centre caring for groups of children.

FAMILY DAY CARE: a program involving the selection and supervision by a government or authorized private agency of private families who care for children during the day.

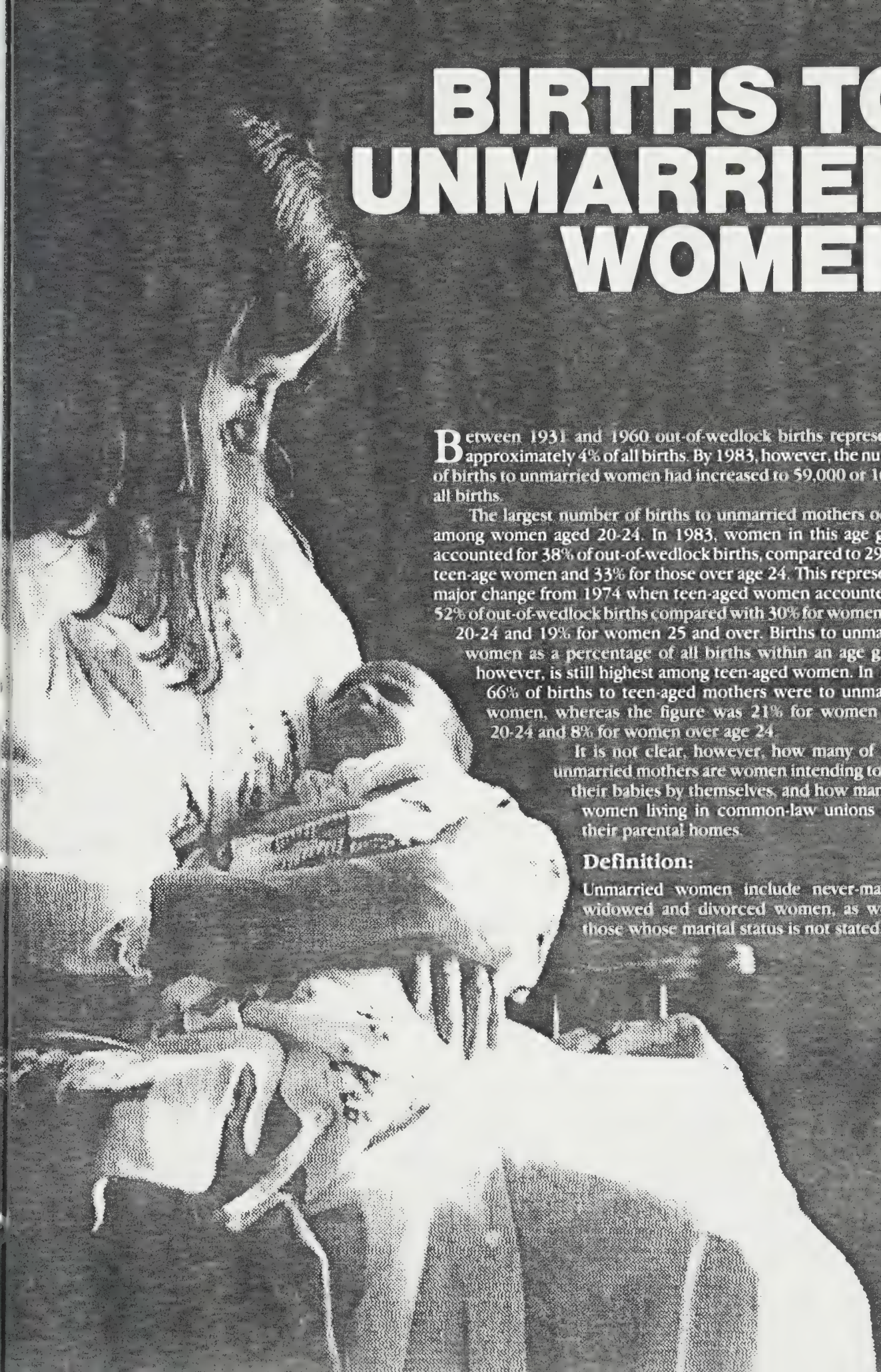
For the purposes of this document, these last two forms are referred to as "licensed child care". All other forms of care are referred to as "informal" or "private" day care arrangements.

Licensed Day Care Spaces, 1973-1984



Source : Health and Welfare Canada, National Day Care Information Centre.
* No data available for 1981.

BIRTHS TO UNMARRIED WOMEN



Between 1931 and 1960 out-of-wedlock births represented approximately 4% of all births. By 1983, however, the number of births to unmarried women had increased to 59,000 or 16% of all births.

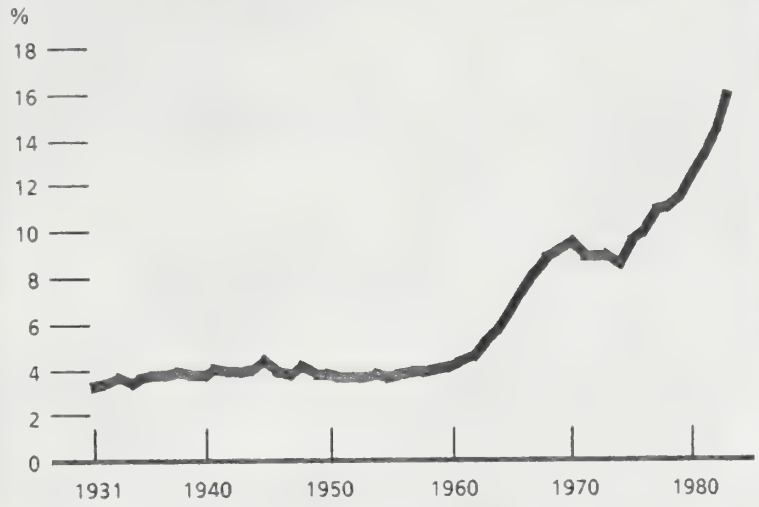
The largest number of births to unmarried mothers occurs among women aged 20-24. In 1983, women in this age group accounted for 38% of out-of-wedlock births, compared to 29% for teen-age women and 33% for those over age 24. This represents a major change from 1974 when teen-aged women accounted for 52% of out-of-wedlock births compared with 30% for women aged 20-24 and 19% for women 25 and over. Births to unmarried women as a percentage of all births within an age group, however, is still highest among teen-aged women. In 1983, 66% of births to teen-aged mothers were to unmarried women, whereas the figure was 21% for women aged 20-24 and 8% for women over age 24.

It is not clear, however, how many of these unmarried mothers are women intending to raise their babies by themselves, and how many are women living in common-law unions or in their parental homes.

Definition:

Unmarried women include never-married, widowed and divorced women, as well as those whose marital status is not stated.

Live Births to Unmarried Mothers as a Percentage of Total Live Births, 1931-1983



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 84-204, *Vital Statistics, Volume 1, Births and Deaths*

Out-of-Wedlock Births to Indian Mothers

Approximately 10% of births to unmarried mothers are births to Canadian Registered Indians. The number of births outside marriage has been increasing as a proportion of total Registered Indian births. It is estimated that in 1968 approximately 33% of Registered Indian births were outside marriage, a proportion which increased to 60%, or approximately 5,800 births by 1981.

Until recently Registered Indian women have lost their legal Indian status when they married someone who was not a Registered Indian. As a result, Registered Indian women may have chosen to live common-law to avoid losing their legal status for themselves or their children.

Live Births to Unmarried Women as a Percentage of Births in Her Age Group, 1974-1983

	Age Groups			
	Under 20	20-24	25 and over[1]	All ages
1974[2]	36.3	8.2	3.2	9.3
1975[3]	39.9	8.8	3.7	10.1
1976[3]	43.0	9.5	3.7	10.5
1977	48.4	11.1	4.6	11.3
1978	51.4	12.2	4.7	11.7
1979	54.3	13.5	5.2	12.2
1980	56.8	15.1	5.9	13.2
1981	60.5	17.0	6.6	14.2
1982	64.2	19.3	7.4	15.5
1983	66.0	21.2	8.4	16.2

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-204, *Vital Statistics, Volume I, Births and Deaths*
[1] Includes "not stated" ages.
[2] Excludes Quebec and Ontario.
[3] Excludes Quebec.

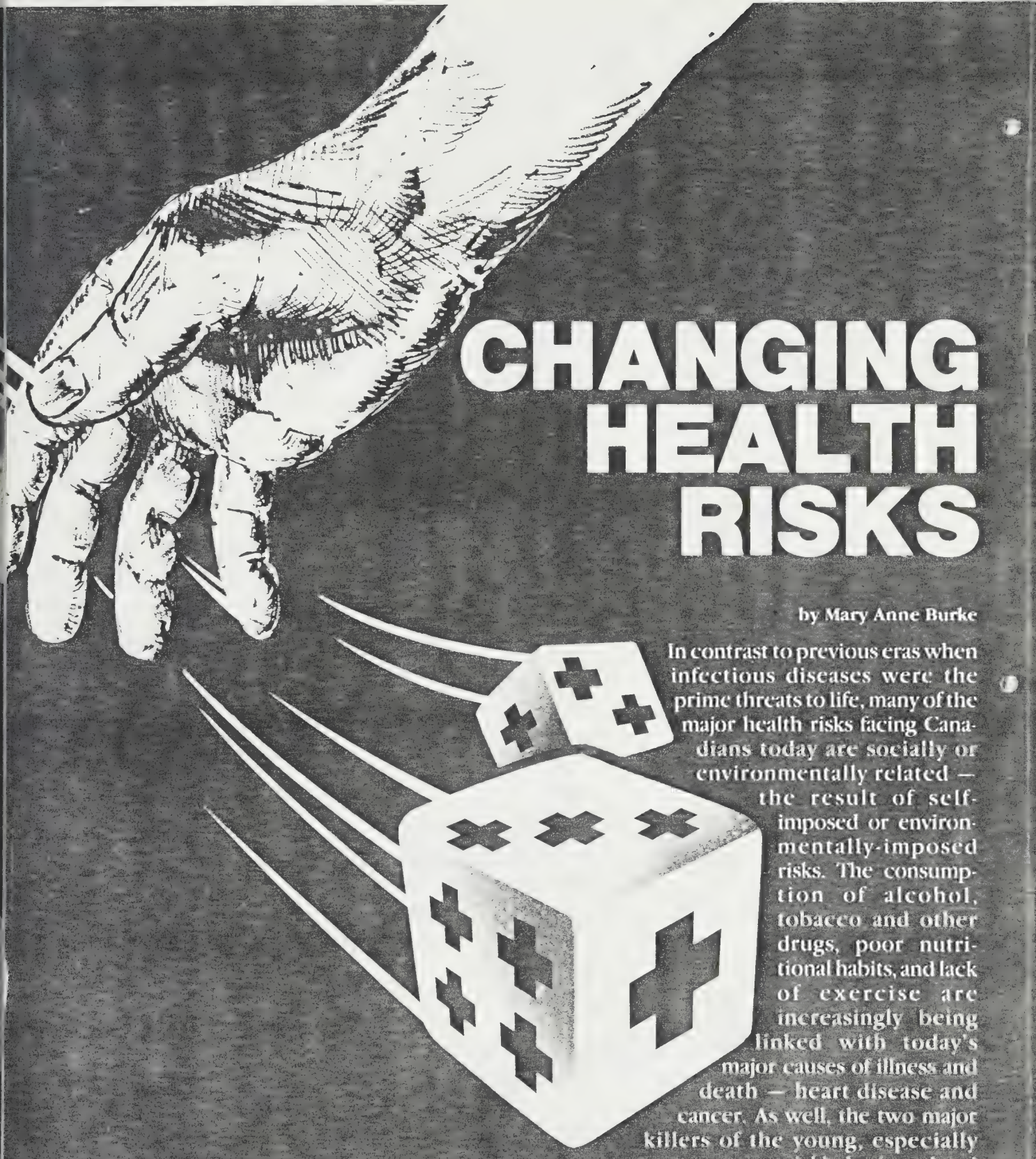
Live Births to Unmarried Women by Age Group, 1974-1983

	Age Groups		
	Under 20	20-24	25 and over[1]
	numbers of births		
1974[2]	10,569	6,096	3,790
1975[3]	13,159	7,640	4,936
1976[3]	13,420	8,105	5,004
1977	17,554	12,857	9,296
1978	17,507	13,782	9,581
1979	17,349	15,225	10,918
1980	17,777	16,981	12,866
1981	17,745	18,798	14,672
1982	18,311	21,193	16,782
1983	16,889	22,682	19,401
	As a % of total out-of-wedlock births		
1974[2]	51.7	29.8	18.5
1975[3]	51.1	29.7	19.2
1976[3]	50.6	30.6	18.9
1977	44.2	32.4	23.4
1978	42.8	33.7	23.4
1979	39.9	35.0	25.1
1980	37.3	35.7	27.0
1981	34.7	36.7	28.7
1982	32.5	37.7	29.8
1983	28.6	38.5	32.9

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-204, *Vital Statistics, Volume I, Births and Deaths*, and Health Division, Unpublished Data.
[1] Includes "not stated" ages.
[2] Excludes Quebec and Alberta.
[3] Excludes Quebec.

KEEPING TRACK

Between January and November of 1985, the proportion of married women in the labour force increased from 53.7% to 55.9%



CHANGING HEALTH RISKS

by Mary Anne Burke

In contrast to previous eras when infectious diseases were the prime threats to life, many of the major health risks facing Canadians today are socially or environmentally related — the result of self-imposed or environmentally-imposed risks. The consumption of alcohol, tobacco and other drugs, poor nutritional habits, and lack of exercise are increasingly being linked with today's major causes of illness and death — heart disease and cancer. As well, the two major killers of the young, especially young men, are social-behavior-related — motor vehicle accidents and suicide.

In addition, sexually transmitted diseases for which no immunization process or cure exists have become a more prominent threat to health, and in the case of AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome), to life. And while the incidence of communicable diseases such as polio has been diminished as a result of mass immunization, many people are still not properly immunized.

As medical advances are made in the control and understanding of degenerative diseases such as heart disease, cancer and arthritis, individual control and awareness of self-imposed and environmentally-imposed risks are assuming more importance in the overall health of Canadians. Individuals are seen as increasingly responsible for the condition of their own health. This however, has not diminished the state role in controlling environmental risks. The authorities will likely continue to be involved in issues such as smoking in public places and compulsory immunization programmes. Good exercise and nutritional habits are already widely promoted in public and private organizations, and an entire health, fitness and food industry thrives around our search for the grail of physical and mental well-being. We present below the major indicators of the extent to which self-imposed and environmentally-imposed risks exact their toll.

Today's Leading Killers

Heart Disease and Cancer

Currently, the leading causes of death in Canada are heart disease and cancer, and both are associated in some fashion with risks undertaken by individuals. Deaths due to heart disease, however, have been declining steadily, though for reasons not yet well understood. Heart disease death rates declined from a rate of 312.2 cases per 100,000 male population in 1970, to 270.4 cases per 100,000 by 1983 (a 13% decrease). Among females aged 25-84 during the period 1967-1982 were attributed to tobacco use. Smoking-related lung cancer deaths were estimated to have increased from 3,100 in 1967 to 7,000 in 1982 among persons aged 35-84. These estimates represent an increase from 4% to 8% of all deaths in that age group due to smoking.

Smoking and Drinking

Smoking

Fewer Canadians are smoking cigarettes now than twenty years ago. In the period 1966-1983, the proportion of regular cigarette smokers among males 15 and over dropped steadily from 54% to 34%. Among males 15-19 years of age the proportion of smokers also declined, from 35% to 20%, such that smoking is now as prevalent among males as it is among females in this age group. Overall, the proportion of smokers among women 15 and over declined from 31% to 28% during the same time period. The greater decline in the number of male smokers in the last two decades has narrowed the difference between the number of male and female cigarette smokers. In short order this could lead to an equalization between the sexes in rates of smoking and potentially in the rates of smoking-related diseases.

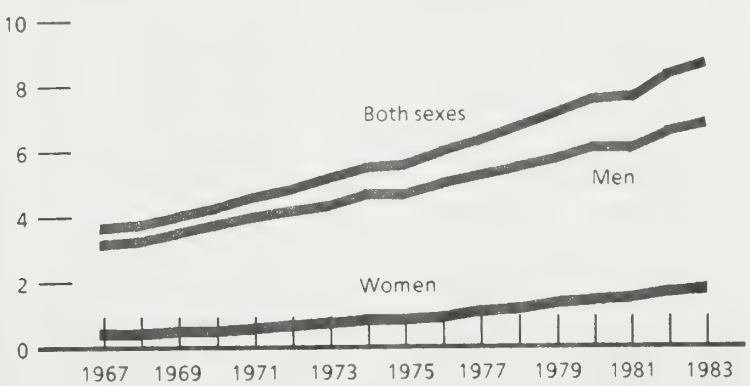
The negative effects of smoking, like those of radiation, are cumulative. Typically, the effects of smoking on death rates are delayed in their onset anywhere from 10 to 30 years. Current increases in lung cancer rates are associated with past increases in smoking and present declines in tobacco use should result in a decrease in deaths attributable to tobacco over the next decades.

Health and Welfare Canada has made several estimates of smoking-related deaths. Twenty percent of all deaths among Canadians aged 25-84 during the period 1967-1982 were attributed to tobacco use. Smoking-related lung cancer deaths were estimated to have increased from 3,100 in 1967 to 7,000 in 1982 among persons aged 35-84. These estimates represent an increase from 4% to 8% of all deaths in that age group due to smoking.

Alcohol Consumption

It is estimated that approximately one death in ten is attributable to alcohol abuse, as are half of all traffic fatalities. While abuse of alcohol represents a potential risk to the health of Canadians, alcohol production and consumption have increased in Canada over the past thirty years. Total sales of alcoholic beverages increased from 79.9 litres per person in 1950 to 127.4 litres by 1983. Consumption of absolute alcohol increased from 9.0 litres per person in 1970 to 11.3 litres by 1980.

Estimated Lung Cancer Deaths Attributable to Tobacco Use, 1967-1983



Source : Health and Welfare Canada, *Estimates of Mortality Attributable to Tobacco Use Among Canadians Aged 35-84*, Neil E. Collishaw and Walter Tostowaryk, June 1984.
Statistics Canada Catalogue No. 84-206, *Vital Statistics, Volume III, Mortality.*

Longevity Increasing

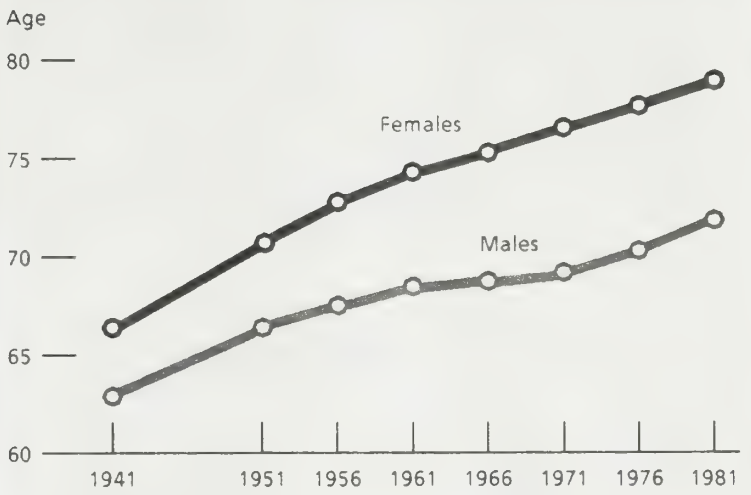
Canadians are living longer than ever before, with women living on average considerably longer than men. In 1981, life expectancy at birth was 79.0 years for women compared with 71.9 years for men.

Over the past sixty years, the life expectancy of Canadians at birth has increased by 18 years for women and by 13 years for men. A principal reason for these increases in lifespan figures is the reduction of the numbers of infant and early childhood deaths.

Looking at longevity another way, in 1931 the probability at birth of surviving to age 65 was .587, about 6 out of 10 for men, and .617, just slightly greater for women. In 1981, a newborn male's probability of surviving to age 65 was .747 compared with .861 for females.

While the life expectancy of women has lengthened to a greater extent than that of men, the increase in male life expectancy at birth was greater than that of females in the 1976-1981 period (increases of 1.7 and 1.5 years, respectively).

Life Expectancy at Birth, 1941-1981



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 84-206, *Vital Statistics, Volume III, Mortality*

The Probability of Surviving to Age 65

	Probability of Surviving from Birth to Age 65	
	Males	Females
In 1931	.587	.617
In 1981	.747	.861

Source: Statistics Canada, Vital Statistics Section, Health Division.

The continuing gap in life expectancy between men and women, together with the tendency for women to marry men older than themselves, mean that many women will continue to face widowhood as their husbands predecease them. As the proportion of the elderly, predominantly female, population over age 75 increases, pressures on traditional medical services and facilities are also likely to grow if alternatives to these forms of institutionalized care are not developed. After age 75, physical and mental health problems often become severe. According to data from the 1978-79 Canada Health Survey, rates of disability rise substantially after age 75, particularly for women.

Mortality is becoming compressed into the oldest age categories and a greater proportion of Canadians are dying between their 80th and 100th years. This process has significant implications for society in terms of health, recreational, social and economic needs of an elderly population.

Over the last 20 years, hospital utilization has increased substantially for the 65+ and 75+ population. As the means of treating or staving off degenerative diseases are further developed, the resulting increase in disability-free years of life for the middle-aged and those just approaching retirement might well give rise to new social concerns and opportunities.

No clear-cut explanation of the lengthening of lives is widely accepted. Why males should have a shorter average lifespan than females is also hard to explain. Several factors related to higher rates of labour force participation by males may be germane, including higher exposure to work-related stress, disproportionately high cigarette smoking and alcohol consumption, and the much higher incidence of accidental deaths. But the slowing of the rate of increase in female life expectancy, noted first during the 1976-1981 period, may indicate that the number of years still to be added to female life expectancy is small. A possible explanation involves the increasing exposure of women to work-related stress as female labour force participation rates increase, and the increasingly similar patterns of consumption of alcohol and tobacco by men and women.

males, the rate declined over the same period from 205.2 to 199.9 (a 3% decrease).

While cancer deaths of all types have remained fairly stable over the years, the lung cancer death rate has been increasing, especially for women. It increased from 7.1 and 40.6 deaths per 100,000 population for women and men respectively in 1970, to 20.2 and 64.7 in 1983 (increases of 185% and 59% respectively). Lung cancer is the most rapidly rising cause of cancer deaths among women. An aging population like Canada's will tend to have higher rates of lung cancer over time as a function of more people entering older age groups. We can eliminate the effects of aging in the calculation of death rates and produce "age-standardized" rates which are a more accurate reflection of the actual trend. From 1932 to 1981, the age-standardized lung cancer mortality rate for women (aged 25-74) increased from 2.8 per 100,000 to 25.1 per 100,000. As well, in the last decade and a half, lung cancer moved from ninth to second place as the most common type of cancer death among women. It has been suggested that by 1987, lung cancer will replace breast cancer as the leading type of female cancer death.[1]

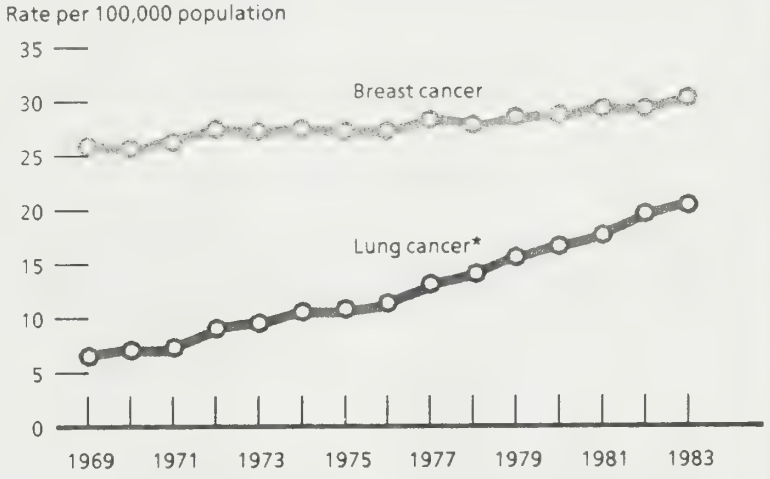
Accidental Deaths and Suicides

The combination of accidental and violent deaths is the third ranking cause of loss of life. This deadly duo accounted for 10% of all male deaths and 5% of all female deaths in 1983. Accidents and violent deaths is the leading cause of death and hospitalization of young people aged 1 to 34, and exceeded all other causes of death in potential years of life lost (years between the time death occurred and normal life expectancy) in 1983. Two particular causes of death stand out among the young: motor vehicle accidents and suicide; and in both instances the number and rates of death are much higher for young males. In 1983, for example, 63% of motor vehicle deaths occurred among those under age 34, and 55% of victims were between the ages of 15 and 34. Three out of four victims were male.

Data from the Traffic Injury Research Foundation of Canada[2] for seven provinces suggest that alcohol is an additional factor at work here: 40% of fatally injured automobile, truck and van drivers, and 60% of fatally injured drivers of snowmobiles were found to be impaired or to have high levels of blood alcohol. Among these fatalities, drivers between age 16 and 39 had the highest frequency of alcohol impairment.

The other tragedy of Canadian youth, suicide, has increased strikingly for males but not for females. The rate for men rose from 15.9 per 100,000 males aged 15-24 in 1970 to 28.7 in 1983. Suicides among men aged 25 and above also grew — from 26.0 per 100,000 to 30.5 over the same period. In contrast, and despite the

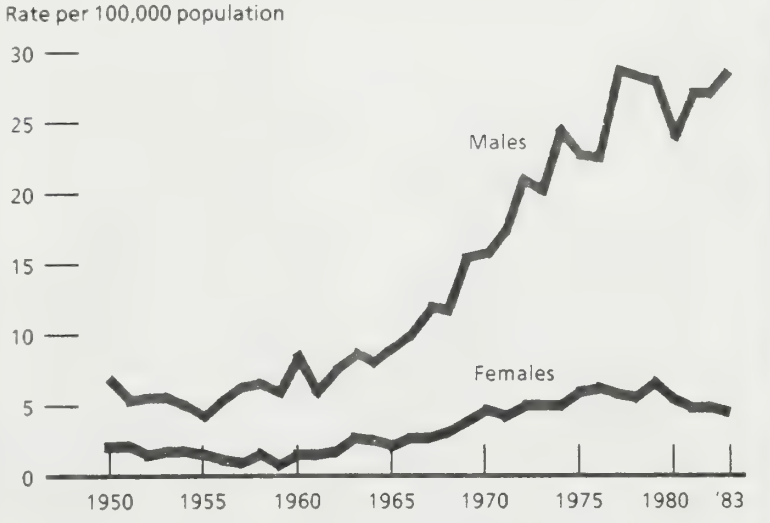
Female Lung and Breast Cancer Mortality Rates, 1969-1983



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 84-206, *Vital Statistics, Volume III, Mortality.*

* Includes bronchial and tracheal cancer.

Suicide Rates for Youth (15-24 Years), 1950-1983



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 84-203, *Causes of Death.*

[1] Health and Welfare Canada, ***Chronic Diseases in Canada***, vol. 4, No. 3, December, 1983.

[2] The Traffic Injury Research Foundation of Canada compiles data on motor vehicle accidents. Readers can obtain further information by contacting the Foundation, 171 Nepean St., Ottawa, Ontario, K2P 0B4; Phone (613) 238-5235.

ıct that women attempt suicide more ıan men, the rate for women aged 5-24 was 4.8 in 1970 and 4.5 in 1983, nd the rate for women aged 25 and bove dropped from 10.6 in 1970 to 0.0 per 100,000 in 1983.

:arly Childhood Deaths

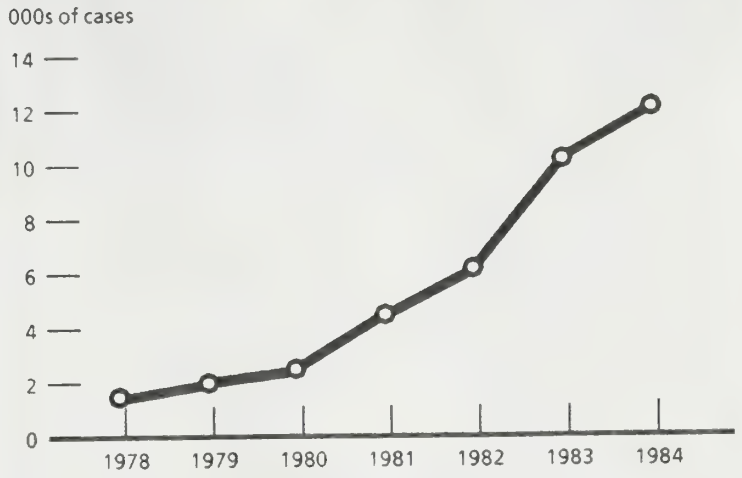
ıs with adults, infectious diseases are ıow much less a threat to infants, and ınfant mortality is declining. However, ›irth defects occur in 6% of all live ›irths and are now the leading cause ›f newborn infant deaths in Canada. Two life-threatening deformities, ınencepholie (absence of parts of the ›rain) and spina bifida, continue to :laim the very young, and are most :ommon in Eastern Canada. The exact ›rigin of most deformities is un-known; however, environmental and/ ›r genetic factors may be at work in up :o two-thirds of the cases. Environ-mental factors include: poor nutrition, maternal fever or viruses like rubella (German measles), maternal use of alcohol, tobacco and other drugs, and exposure of the fetus through the mother to radiation, chemicals and pesticides.

Sudden Infant Death Syndrome (SIDS) is now the leading cause of death among Canadian infants in the first year of life. The exact cause is unknown, though a number of factors have been isolated which are asso-ciated with higher risks of SIDS. These include: mothers younger than 20, short intervals between pregnancies, exposure to cigarette smoke, maternal abuse of narcotics, and low birth weight. Environmental pollutants are also suspected causal factors.

KEEPING TRACK

Between 1951 and 1981, the percentage of people with French as their mother tongue fell from 29.0% to 25.7%

Reported Cases of Herpes In Canada, 1978-1984



Source : Health and Welfare Canada, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, *Sexually Transmitted Disease in Canada*.

The Emerging Dangers

Recurring Risks without Immunization

The incidence of communicable diseases such as German measles, diphtheria, tetanus, and mumps (and with the exception of sexually transmitted diseases), has declined in Canada in response to widespread immunization of the population. The emerging issue is one of complacency in the face of success. Without continued vigilance in immunization some of the major disease threats of the past could regain a foothold. According to findings of the Canada Health Survey in 1978-79, many people lacked adequate immunization, and were therefore at risk of contracting these diseases. Approximately 237,000 or nearly 8% of women between age 20 and 34 were reported as inadequately protected against rubella (German measles), a disease which can cause birth defects if it occurs during pregnancy. Approximately 4.5 million Canadians were not immunized against polio, with the greatest number at risk in Quebec. Immunization against diphtheria, tetanus, measles and mumps was also not complete.

Sexually Transmitted Diseases

Sexually transmitted diseases (STD) in Canada continue to be a health problem. While the overall incidence of syphilis has declined substantially in the last forty years, from a peak of 138 cases per 100,000 population in 1944 to 12 in 1984, gonorrhea has remained at epidemic rates, peaking at 214 per 100,000 in 1946 and again at 231 in 1981. This rate, however, dropped to 175 in 1984.

Recent health data signal the emergence of two new sexually transmitted diseases. First, the reported incidence of herpes has climbed dramatically since 1979 when the Health and Welfare Laboratory Centre for Disease Control, (LCDC) began to record data about this problem. From 1979 to 1984, the number of reported cases of herpes increased from less than 2,000 to over 12,000. Second, as of February 1986, LCDC reported 458 adult and 21 pediatric cases of AIDS in Canada, 168 of which have resulted in death.

Changing Risks

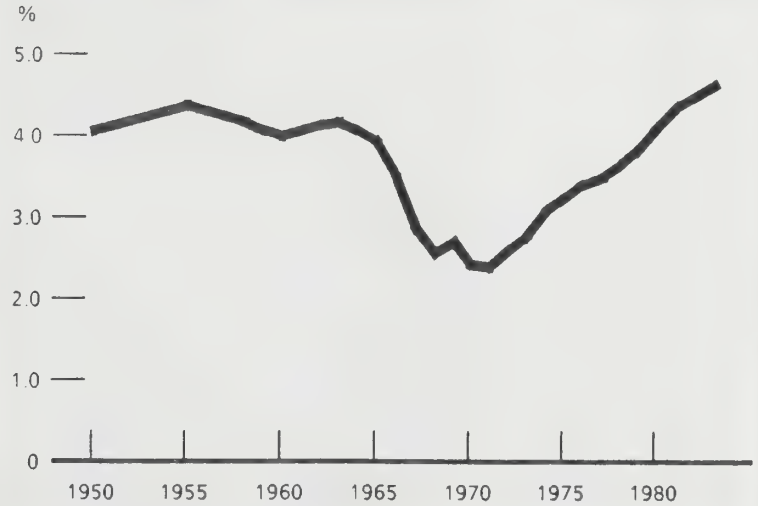
The trends we have examined suggest strongly that the nature of threats to life and limb among Canadians has clearly shifted away from infectious diseases to the types of death and disease over which individuals exercise some control. While the degree of self-imposition of these risks can easily be overstated, some threats can be better managed than others and future health care strategies can be expected to focus on influencing the actions and habits of individuals.

PRIVATE EDUCATION



Canadians have always had options in choosing primary and secondary schools for their children. Various types of private tuition-financed schools catering to specialized interests of parents and pupils exist as a growing alternative to taxation-supported school systems. From 1950 through 1983, the number of pupils enrolled in private tuition-financed schools rose from 102,700 to 231,800 (an increase of 126%). This increase, however, does not represent a fundamental change in the proportion of children enrolling in private primary and secondary educational institutions. While there has been a marginal increase in the proportion of children attending private schools in the last few years, the proportion remains less than 5%; and only in the last two years has private school enrolment as a proportion of total enrolment surpassed that experienced in the early 1950's.

Private Enrolment as a Percentage of Total Elementary and Secondary School Enrolment, 1950-1983

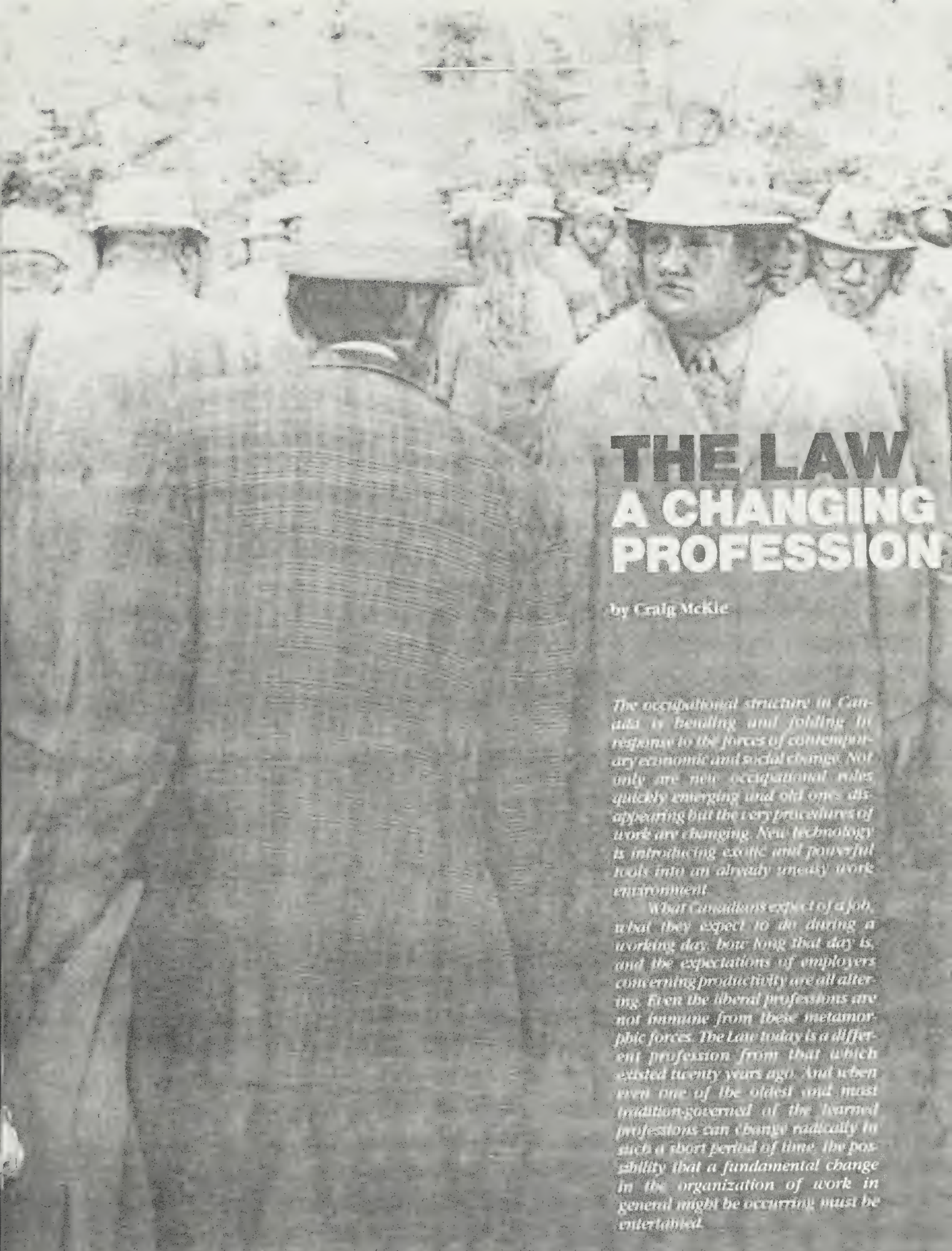


Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 81-210, *Elementary and Secondary School Enrolment.*

KEEPING TRACK

*Statistics Canada estimates the Canadian population stood at **25,127,900** as of June 1st, 1984, an increase of **1%** over the preceding twelve month period. British Columbia **(+1.7%)**, Saskatchewan **(+1.4%)** and Ontario **(+1.4%)** were the provinces with the faster growing populations in this period, while Alberta was the only province which had a net loss of population **(-1,200)**.*

*In 1983-84, **14.4%** of men aged 18-24 were enrolled full-time at university, compared with **12.7%** of women in the same age group.*



THE LAW: A CHANGING PROFESSION

by Craig McKie

The occupational structure in Canada is bending and folding in response to the forces of contemporary economic and social change. Not only are new occupational roles quickly emerging and old ones disappearing but the very procedures of work are changing. New technology is introducing exotic and powerful tools into an already uneasy work environment.

What Canadians expect of a job, what they expect to do during a working day, how long that day is, and the expectations of employers concerning productivity are all altering. Even the liberal professions are not immune from these metamorphic forces. The Law today is a different profession from that which existed twenty years ago. And when even one of the oldest and most tradition-governed of the learned professions can change radically in such a short period of time, the possibility that a fundamental change in the organization of work in general might be occurring must be entertained.



The Canadian legal profession today is in the midst of a period of great change. The increasing number of lawyers, their altered social background characteristics, and the novel nature of some of their work are all subjects of public and professional discussion. The role of the liberal professions in general is being re-examined as society's requirement for specialized professional work and its ability to pay for such work alter with time. There are only a few quantitative windows from which to view this process of change: the Census and income tax data are two of the most prevailing, and the partial images they provide are presented here.

The Nature of the Canadian Legal Profession

The long-term tendency in the Canadian Bar is for an increase in numbers disproportionate to the growth of the Canadian population. This tendency has been in evidence to a greater or lesser extent since the early part of the twentieth century and has occurred without apparent regard to ebb or to enrolment policies followed by the various law schools. Accompanying the increase in numbers has been a declining average age of practitioner, increasing participation of women, and substantial attrition to other related fields of endeavour such as business and government. During the same period, the characteristics of the Canadian labour force as a whole have changed, most notably with the exodus from salaried agricultural employment.

In Canada, the professions as a singular occupational sector have accounted for progressively more of all paid workers in this century, suggesting at the very least that social relations (and service relations with them) have become much more formalized, specialized, contractual in nature, knowledge intensive, and market-based with the passage of time. The professions (and most notably the legal profession) bring to bear dispassionate, informed and critical judgement on the maintenance of societal and personal order. This task has assumed a related though distinct entrepreneurial aspect in the managing of capital markets (administering pools of risk capital and the writing of debt instruments), underwriting and insuring risk ventures, and syndicating real estate construction and industrial share capitalization. All of these activities were and are dependent on enforceable contracts and assurances of neutral adjudication should circumstances warrant, and on the prior consideration of the detailed tax law consequences of such investments.

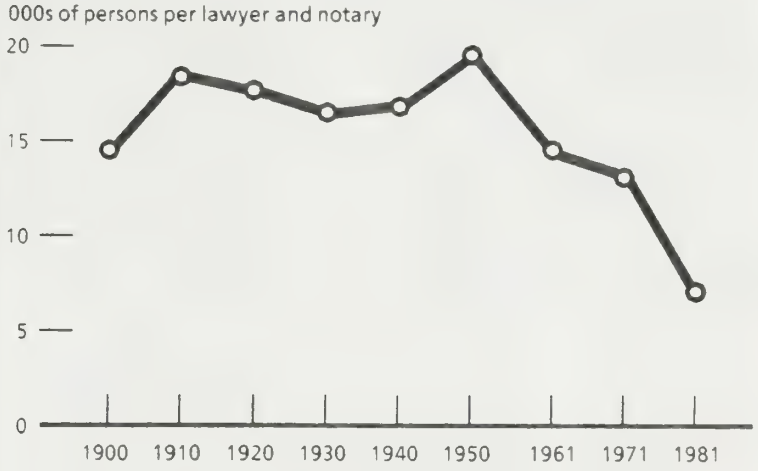
But it has been in the last decade when the Canadian legal profession has grown most dramatically in overall size (more than doubling in total registered membership between 1971 and 1981) and become more integrated with the associated worlds of business and government. Where the self-employed lawyer once predominated, working largely

alone to solve legal problems and maintain orderly records, lawyers today are about evenly divided between the self-employed and the salaried, many of the latter working for the organs of government and business as employees. At the same time, the real incomes of lawyers dropped on average in the early 1980's; and there was a small but significant amount of recorded unemployment particularly among the youngest.

Given these large increases in numbers, it is not surprising that the number of persons per lawyer in Canada has dropped dramatically in recent times. The ratio of Canadians to lawyers (and notaries: see Lawyers and the Census below), as reflected in the last three decennial Census years, has declined dramatically from 1,478 Canadians for every lawyer in 1961 to 712 in 1981. It is wise, however, to remember that many of the lawyers represented here do not offer their services to the public directly. Using John Nelligan's historical figures[1] and combining them with contemporary Census figures on one graph, we can see that the number of persons per lawyer measure has been moving steadily downward since the end of World War II and recently, the rate of decline has accelerated. Also to be found is a large and continuing discrepancy between provinces in this ratio. While in 1981 there were 641 Ontario citizens for each lawyer, there

[1] John Nelligan, *Lawyers in Canada: A Half-Century Count*, Canadian Bar Review, Vol. 28, No. 7, 1950:741.

Number of Persons per Lawyer (1900-1950) and per Lawyer and Notary (1961-1981) in Canada



Source : John Nelligan, *Lawyers in Canada : A Half Century Count*, Canadian Bar Review, Vol. 28, no. 7, 1950:741; and Statistics Canada, Census of Canada

Canadian Lawyers, 1900-1950

The one major census of lawyers carried out in Canada independent of the Census of Canada was completed in 1950 by the Canadian Bar Association with the assistance of the then Dominion Bureau of Statistics. There was then a concern with a perceived shortage of lawyers and the following findings were in many ways harbingers of the subsequent experience:

1. Lawyers were maldistributed by region and province. In 1950, in Quebec and Ontario, there was one lawyer for every 1,494 and 1,498 citizens respectively. In contrast, in Newfoundland, there was only 1 lawyer for every 6,327 citizens.

2. Comparative figures for every tenth year from 1900 to 1950 showed a steady decline in the number of lawyers in the eastern provinces relative to the population over the entire period, with a slight increase shown in the decade of the 1920's which quickly gave way to a decrease again thereafter. This pattern was found in all eastern provinces. In the western provinces, the pattern was one of rapid increase in numbers until the 1920's when the general pattern of decrease relative to population emerged, to parallel the eastern experience. The author of the study suggested a direct correlation between the number of lawyers and the level of taxes collected in a jurisdiction. He concluded that "the distribution of lawyers across the country is influenced not only by the size of the population, but also by the general prosperity of the various sections of the country".

3. The survey showed that about one third of all lawyers practicing in Canada in 1950 were to be found in two cities, Toronto and Montreal. The pattern of concentration in the largest city in a province was general and was in evidence from 1900 (when about 75% of all lawyers in Canada were to be found in communities with less than 100,000 population) to 1950 when the comparable figure was about 45%. The author also noted that lawyers in towns were older than their urban colleagues, with western lawyers as a group being older than their eastern counterparts.

4. Size of law firm was shown to be gradually increasing through the period 1900-1950. For example, by 1950 about 20% of Canadian lawyers were found to be practicing in firms with 4 or more partners, in contrast to 5% in 1900.

5. In 1900, "only one woman was shown in the Canadian Law List. The first real growth in numbers came after 1920 when the women increased from 8 to 26 during a ten-year period ... (in 1950) there are 113 listed in the Law List ... Of those shown, however, almost two-thirds are to be found in one province, Ontario". (Quotations and figures from John Nelligan, ***Lawyers in Canada: A Half-Century Count***, Canadian Bar Review, Vol. 28, No. 7, 1950:741).

were 2,103 Newfoundland citizens and 1,531 residents of Prince Edward Island for each lawyer. The ratio had dramatically declined with time in all provinces but their relative positions in terms of service levels have been sustained.

Numerical increases in the legal profession are only one aspect of the rise to prominence of the professions in this century. While the overall number of professionals has increased in Canada and elsewhere, this increase has not been shared evenly by men and women. By tradition, some professions such as the law and medicine barred women candidates entirely. But even with the removal of these formal barriers in the early part of the twentieth century, the increase in the proportion of women practitioners was not dramatic, at least until relatively recently. Until well into the 1970's the professions in Canada were overwhelmingly male, and in the law, dentistry, and medicine, the preponderance of males was near total. Even when one considers the category of the professions as a group, which includes, for example, lawyers, doctors, nurses, teachers, engineers, and accountants, the proportion of males in all professional occupations in Canada changed little until the late 1970's and actually increased only marginally from 1961 to 1973 (58.0% to 58.8%).

Legal Education and Legal Work

Legal training and legal practice are not synonymous. Because of the diversity of occupations in which law graduates find themselves after the passage of time in the labour force, and because some

Legal Education

Enrolment in Canadian law schools grew rapidly in the late 1960's and 1970's to attain a stable full-time enrolment of approximately 10,000 students by the mid-1970's. Enrolments declined fractionally thereafter. At this level of enrolment, approximately 3,000 law degrees are awarded annually. Whereas once law schools were virtually a male preserve, much of the increase in enrolments was made up of female students.

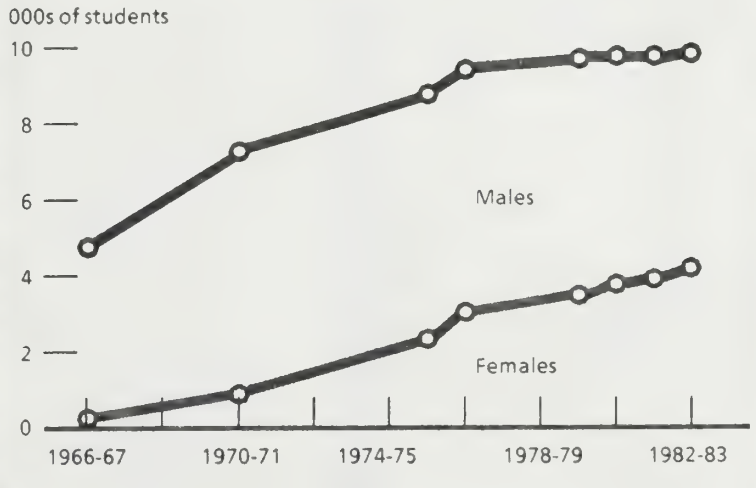
Full-Time Law Student Enrolment by Sex, 1966-67 to 1982-83

	Males		Females		Total	
	Number	Percentage change[1]	Number	Percentage change[1]	Number	Percentage change[1]
1966-67	4,464	–	281	–	4,745	–
1970-71	6,287	+40.8	918	+226.7	7,205	+51.8
1975-76	6,421	+ 2.1	2,345	+155.4	8,775	+21.8
1976-77	6,380	- 0.1	3,022	+ 28.9	10,402	+18.5
1979-80	6,101	- 4.4	3,489	+ 15.5	9,590	- 7.8
1980-81	6,019	- 1.3	3,724	+ 6.7	9,743	+ 1.6
1981-82	5,837	- 3.0	3,881	+ 4.2	9,718	- 0.3
1982-83	5,640	- 3.4	4,153	+ 7.0	9,793	+ 0.8
1966-67 to 1982-83	+1,176	+26.3%	+3,872	+1,377.9%	+5,048	+106.4%

[1] From previous year listed in table.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 81-204, *Universities: Enrolment and Degrees.*

Total Full-time Law Student Enrolment, 1966-67 to 1982-83



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 81-204, *Universities : Enrolment and Degrees.*

Law Degrees Awarded in Canada, 1969-70 to 1982

	Number of degrees	Annual percentage change
1969-70	1,502	–
1970-71	1,949	+ 29.8
1971-72	2,152	+ 10.4
1972-73	2,268	+ 5.4
1974	2,034	- 10.3
1975	2,083	+ 2.4
1976	2,643	+ 26.9
1977	2,832	+ 7.2
1978	3,022	+ 6.7
1979	2,948	- 2.4
1980	3,017	+ 2.3
1981	3,105	+ 2.9
1982	3,114	+ 0.3
1969-70 to 1982	+1,612	+107.3

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue No. 81-204, *Universities: Enrolment and Degrees.*

lawyers in the past entered the profession by means other than graduation from a law school (by apprenticeship in another country for instance), it must be remembered that some law graduates never take bar examinations or never successfully complete them. Others are successful but never practice, or only practice for a short while before taking up another occupation, or are unemployed for periods of time. An examination of 1981 Census returns reveals 240 male and 215 female lawyers and notaries who reported themselves as being unemployed throughout the previous year. A further unknown number would not have been considered as being in the labour force since they had ceased to actively look for employment. These figures represent unemployment rates of slightly less than 1% for male and about 4% for female lawyers and notaries. The unemployed may nevertheless retain their membership in Bar lists.

Lawyers and the Census

Persons who identified themselves as lawyers in the 1961, 1971 and 1981 Censuses of Canada have well defined characteristics. But it is wise to remember that statistics on these Census lawyers and notaries will inevitably differ from those drawn from sources other than the Census (such as income tax data). Census figures are the most encompassing since they include all those who deemed themselves primarily lawyers. These data do in fact show the large absolute increase in the number of lawyers and notaries. In 1961, there were 12,088 in Canada, rising to 16,315 in 1971. But in the period between the 1971 and 1981 Censuses, the number more than doubled to 34,200, rising very much faster than the population as a whole and also in the process stimulating much discussion of oversupply. Few indeed are occupations or professions which more than doubled their absolute size in an inter-censal period.

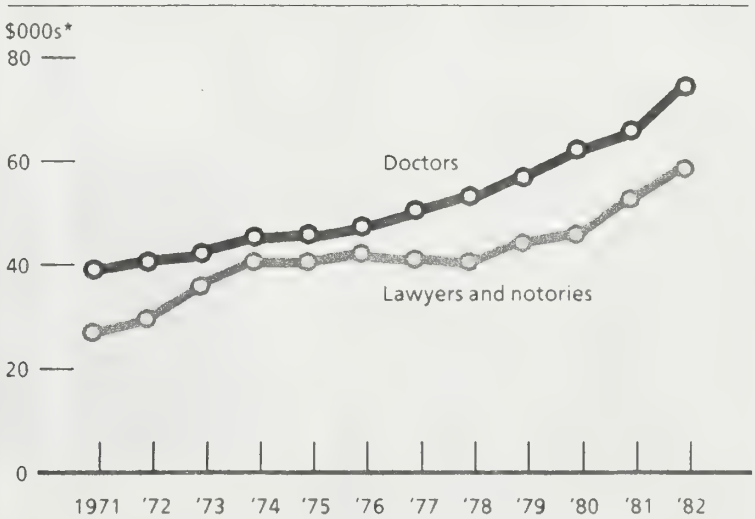
It is quite possible that some members of the Bar chose to identify their occupations differently in response to Census questions, perhaps to more accurately reflect their day-to-day business activities for example. However, accepting the self-definition of lawyer or notary for present purposes, a fairly clear picture of the large change in the profession over the roughly 20 year period covered emerges. In accepting this framework, it must be acknowledged that the addition of notaries to the category to some extent muddies the waters. While notaries in Quebec perform services which are performed by lawyers elsewhere in Canada, and must meet exacting educational requirements, they should not, strictly speaking, be lumped with lawyers in definitive calculations. Nevertheless, the option of deleting them is not available, and as a consequence they must be referred to in combination with lawyers.

Though the number of lawyers in Canada grew dramatically in the latest inter-censal period (about 110%), almost all were in the labour force at the time of the 1981 Census (98%), with a slightly lower figure for female lawyers (96%). Of those in the labour force, almost all were employed (99% overall, 99% of males, and 96% of females). It is apparent that the ratio of salaried to self-employed lawyers is increasing steadily. The number of self-employed lawyers dropped from 68% of the total in 1961 to 51% in 1981. These figures taken together suggest that traditional autonomous practice is rapidly ceasing to be the usual occupational setting for Canadian lawyers and notaries and possibly never was the usual type for female lawyers and notaries in Canada. Lawyers in general, it would appear, are being speedily integrated into the complex organizations of modern government and business.

The geographical distribution of lawyers in Canada is available for the last three decennial Censuses. Historically, as was noted, there has been substantial unevenness in the distribution of lawyers in Canada. The overall distribution of lawyers in the three Census years changed little in the 20 year period. The largest change noted was in British Columbia which had 10.3% of Canadian lawyers in 1961 and 13.1% in 1981 (an increase of 2.8 percentage points). The percentage also increased in Alberta from 7.9% to 9.8% of the Canadian total. In all other provinces, proportional increases were less than 1% (plus or minus) with the exception of Quebec, Manitoba, and Ontario which lost proportional shares of 2.2, 1.7, and 1.2 percentage points respectively. These alterations tend to reflect changing patterns of economic activity as Nelligan suggested in 1950.

Alberta experienced by far the largest percentage increase in the actual number of lawyers, a 176% increase from 1,220 to 3,365 between 1971 and 1981. British Columbia also showed a major percentage increase in the number of lawyers of 143% (from 1,835 to 4,455). The number of lawyers increased dramatically in all provinces, however, with the lowest increase found in Manitoba (70%). Thus, while the more than doubling of the number of lawyers and notaries in Canada (110%) was a general pheno-

Average Income of Self-employed Doctors and Lawyers and Notaries, 1971-1982



Source : Revenue Canada, Taxation Statistics.
* All returns - taxable and non-taxable in current dollars.

menon, it was most pronounced in the west, particularly in Alberta and British Columbia. This corresponds also to overall patterns of population change in Canada.

Other Social Characteristics of Canadian Lawyers

There was a great influx of younger persons to the profession of law beginning in the 1970's, with women being very prominent in this increase. The mean age of male lawyers in Canada dropped from 42 years in 1961 to 41 years in 1971 and to 39 years in 1981. Similar figures for female lawyers were 40, 39 and 33 years respectively. Looking at it in a different way, in 1961 52% of male lawyers and 57% of female lawyers were under 40 years of age. But by 1981, these proportions had increased to 65% and 85%. The increasing representation of young female lawyers in 1981 is most graphic, but there is a continuing trend to a more youthful group of lawyers as a whole.

Other related dimensions of the social characteristics of lawyers and notaries which the Census captures are place of birth and ethnic origin. In 1961, fully 79% of Canadian lawyers were affiliated with either the British or French "Charter" groups in terms of ethnicity. By 1971, this total had fallen to 73%. In the 1981 Census, ethnic origin categories were changed resulting in an apparent further decline to 66%. However, when one adds to the total the new 1981 Census categories of "British and French", "British and other", and "French and other", the total returns to 73%, a proportion identical to that in 1971. In both 1971 and 1981, female lawyers were drawn from the "Charter Groups" to a slightly greater extent than males, suggesting that it is the new male entrants of non-"Charter Group" ethnic origins who are slightly disproportionately responsible for the gradual decline in the dominance of British and French ethnic origins in the legal profession.

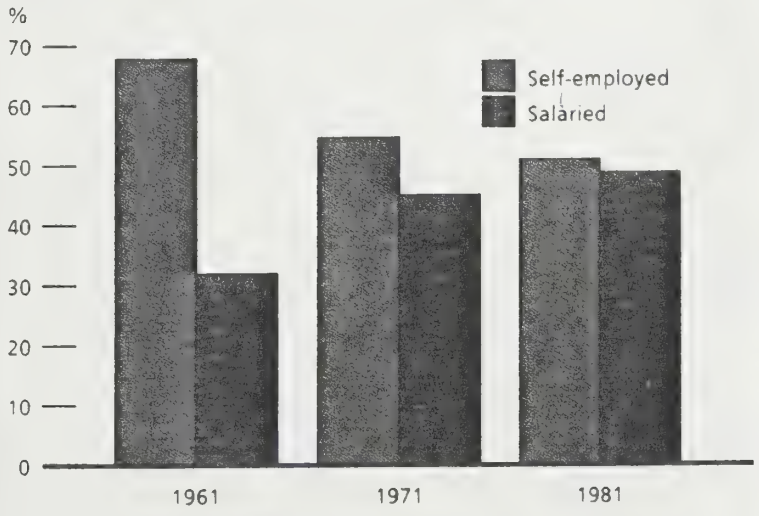
Among the other ethnic groups, the only remarkable change noticeable is that of native people. In 1961, there was only one lawyer noted as a native person. But by 1981, there were 60, a significant increase. Overall, however, there is considerable continuity on this measure, as is the case with place of birth. Lawyers and notaries in Canada are still overwhelmingly Canadian-born (90% in 1961; 88% in 1981). With the sole exception of those of Asian birth (0.3% in 1961; 1.1% in 1981), the proportion stayed virtually unchanged over the twenty-year period.

On another dimension of Census returns, education (and specifically the possession of a university degree), we can see the gradual decline in numbers of those who entered the profession without first obtaining a university degree. One exception to the pattern is a drop in the 1971 Census in the number of female lawyers having a university degree.

Two final dimensions round out the picture derivable from Census figures. These represent marital status and period of immigration. We note that the overall distribution of marital status changed little between 1961 and 1981 with the exception of persons who were divorced at the time of the Census. This figure rose from 0.5% to 3.1%. It is wise to remember that this figure represents only those who are currently divorced at the time of a Census. Many of these persons will remarry, and many of those represented as married would have previously been divorced. No record is obtained of previous marriages.

There is, however, a very apparent rise in the proportion of married female lawyers (from 38% in 1961, to

Salaried and Self-employed Lawyers and Notaries, 1961-1981



Source : Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

From Income Tax Data

The number of vocations open to successful candidates for the Bar is extensive and some considerable difficulties arise when it comes time to count "lawyers and notaries". Revenue Canada Taxation, for example, chooses to publish figures annually only on "self-employed lawyers and notaries". This total would obviously exclude the significant number of lawyers (perhaps as much as 50% of the grand total) working as salaried employees of government and business but include lawyers who may engage in entrepreneurial or investment banking activities while maintaining their membership in the Bar. The figures show that the provincial distribution of self-employed lawyers and notaries has changed little over the period covered. If we compare the information filed by self-employed lawyers and notaries with that of self-employed physicians and surgeons, we see that over the period 1971 to 1982, the number of self-employed lawyers and notaries increased by a factor of 1.68 while the parallel factor for self-employed physicians and surgeons was 1.45. In the same period, the average income in current dollars (not controlling for inflation) for lawyers increased by a factor of 2.15 (doctors: 1.92), and total reported income for all lawyers increased by a factor of 3.62 (doctors: 2.79).

45% in 1971 and increasing to 58% in 1981). This finding strongly suggests that female lawyers do not now leave the labour force upon marriage to anything like the extent they might once have done.

Finally, there are data which indicate that immigration provided a fairly constant 10-11% of Canadian lawyers over the period covered. It has always provided more of the female lawyers (14% in 1961; 12% in 1971; 13% in 1981) and that immigration tended to have occurred more recently for females, but the difference between males and females is not large.

Female Lawyers

In the process of doubling in numbers between 1971 and 1981, the Canadian legal profession cast off its all-male image. The characteristics of the large number of new, presumably younger, and much more often female members of the profession have coloured the contours of the group as a whole. While in 1961, only 3% of members were female, by 1981 that percentage had risen to 15%. The largest part of that increase occurred in the 1971 to 1981 period when the number of female lawyers rose from 780 to 5,175 for Canada as a whole, an increase of 563%. Clearly, whatever barriers to the entrance of women into the profession of law which existed prior to 1961 were largely cast aside in the 1970's.

Also apparent is a much more pronounced change for women lawyers: work in salaried positions. Almost 74% of women lawyers were salaried in 1981, compared to about 59% in 1961. In each successive Census year a much larger proportion of females was salaried than was the case with males.

Census data indicate that the average employment income of all fully-employed female lawyers in Canada (both salaried and self-employed) actually rose by 2.6% in real terms over the period 1970 to 1980. However, the average employment incomes of female lawyers and notaries still tended to lag far behind those of males (about 58% on average). This figure is not inconsistent with the recent experience of Canadian women labour force participants taken as a group.

The pattern of equalization of provincial distribution of women lawyers has also been pronounced. In 1961, fully 52% of all female lawyers in



Canada were to be found in Ontario. By 1981, however, this proportion had dropped to about 33%, though the increase in absolute numbers of female lawyers in Ontario was still the largest in Canada (162 to 1,705). The next highest increase was in Manitoba where the number of female lawyers increased 933% (from 15 to 155), followed by Alberta (809%; from 55 to 500).

The unemployment rate among female lawyers, at 4%, is noticeably higher than that for males (1%). With reference to work in the year prior to the Census (1980), there was considerably more under-employment among women. While about 72 percent of male lawyers worked 49 to 52 weeks in 1980, mostly full-time, only 53% of female lawyers fell into this fully employed category. Similarly, over two and a half times as many females as males reported only 1 to 26 weeks of employment in 1980 (18% to 7%). This difference may reflect post-graduation entry into the labour force of a larger proportion of women midway through 1980; however, women lawyers appear to be engaged in more part-time and more episodic work than is prevalent in the pattern of employment reported by male lawyers

A Changing Profession

As the 1950 Canadian Bar Association study suggested, the absolute level of legal services in a given locale is largely reflective of the level of economic activity in that place, as the cases of Alberta and British Columbia have demonstrated in the last decade by the very rapid growth in membership in their respective provincial Bars. But overall increases and decreases in the number of lawyers have masked internal changes both with respect to the social background characteristics of practitioners and to the nature of the work. We have touched little on the latter but it is self-evident that new areas such as communications law have emerged as striking new specialties in the last decade. Other areas such as family law, while not new, have changed so much that they are virtually unrecognizable from the point of view of even two decades ago.

There have been many ramifications of this process of growth and change for the legal profession. Because there is no widely acknowledged unitary core of knowledge and expertise (or law school curriculum) underlying the practice of law, actual occupational specialization has taken legal practitioners far afield from what might be termed textbook law, so far in fact that much of what is actually done in a practice could only be learned on the job as a result of day-to-day problem solving. Today's legal professionals, lacking shared and immediate social ties (which in the early English origins of the profession were intended to be buttressed by a stipulated number of dinners eaten each year at the Inns of Court[1]), shared expertise, shared knowledge base, shared work responsibilities, sites of work, or even shared content of work in its most general sense, sit together only under the shared legislative umbrella

[1] W.J. Reader, *Professional Men: The Rise of the Professional Classes in Nineteenth Century England*, London: Cox and Wyman 1966, 22

Social Indicators

	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
Population								
Canada (000s)	23,517.0	23,747.3	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,631.8	24,885.9	25,127.9	25,358.5
Annual growth rate	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.9
Immigration	82,939	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	80,793p	•
Emigration	63,559	51,060	43,609	44,823	49,869	48,397	47,967p	•
Family								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	•
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.9	7.9	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	•
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	•
Families experiencing unemployment	699	652	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991
Labour Force								
Total employment (000s)	9,987	10,395	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311
- goods sector (000s)	3,324	3,474	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348
- services sector (000s)	6,662	6,921	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963
Total unemployment (000s)	908	836	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328
Unemployment rate	8.3	7.4	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5
Part-time employment rate	12.1	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5
Women's participation rate	47.9	49.0	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	31.9	32.6	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	•	•
Income								
Average family income – 1982 $	33,513	33,283	34,152	33,728	32,981	32,836	32,287p	•
% of families with low income	–	13.1	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	15.0p	•
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	–	63.3	–	63.6	64.0	•	•	•
Education								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,294.0	5,184.7	5,106.3	5,032.4	4,995.8	4,976.9	4,945.9	•
Full-time postsecondary enrolment	617.8	623.5	643.4	675.3	722.0	763.9	798.6p	•
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,819	1,803	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,851p	•
Government expenditure on education (1982 $000,000)	22,426.8	22,598.2	22,512.7	23,082.3	22,807.9	22,320.8	21,865.4	•
Health								
Suicide rate (per 100,000) - men	22.3	21.4	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	•
- women	7.3	7.0	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	•
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	–	38.6	–	36.7	–	34.0	–	•
- women	–	30.1	–	28.9	–	28.3	–	•
Government expenditure on health (1982 $000,000)	18,058.8	18,456.1	19,564.9	20,831.2	21,091.0	22,227.2	22,601.8	•
Justice								
Crime rates (per 100,000) - violent	592	623	648	666	685	692	714	•
- property	4,673	5,013	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	•
- homicide	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	•
Government								
Expenditures on social programs[1] (1982 $000,000)	90,783.9	91,126.7	95,340.7	97,499.7	103,951.1	106,810.1	102,870.1	•
- as a % of total expenditures	60.4	59.3	57.7	57.3	57.3	59.0	57.8	•
- as a % of GNP	26.1	25.1	25.7	25.9	29.0	29.0	28.1	•
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,523.9	2,332.9	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	•
OAS GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,075.2	2,145.4	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5p
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,501.9	1,547.6	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,223.3p
Economic Indicators								
GNP – annual change	+ 3.6	+ 3.2	+ 1.1	+ 3.3	– 4.4	+ 3.3	+ 5.0	+ 4.5
Annual inflation rate	8.8	9.2	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0
Urban housing starts	178,678	151,717	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408

– Not available; • Not yet available; p Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.
[1] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education, Recreation and Culture

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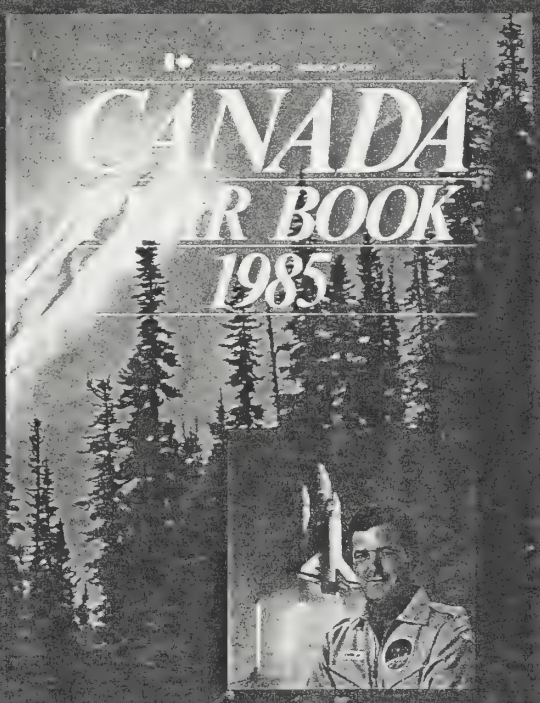
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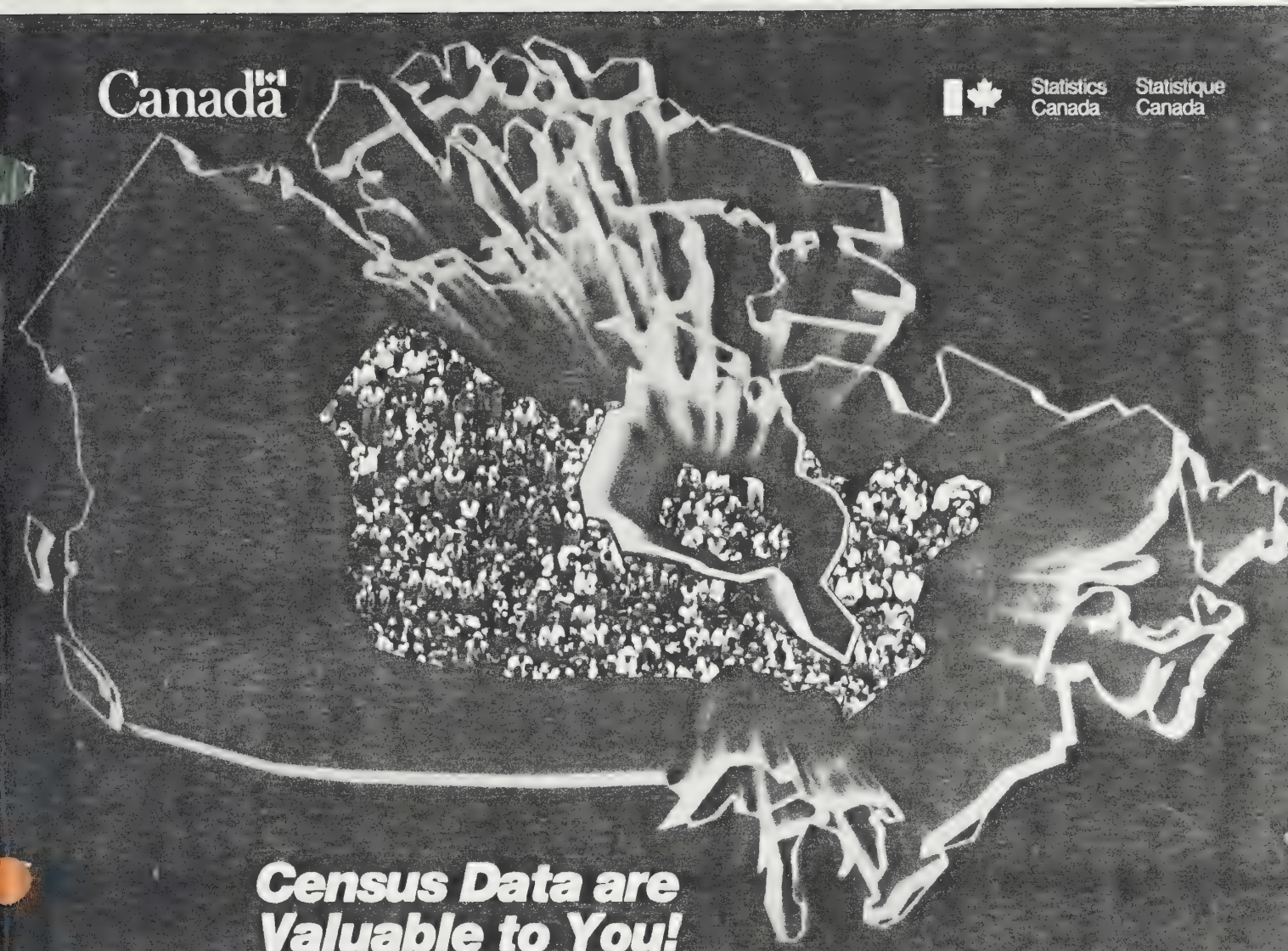
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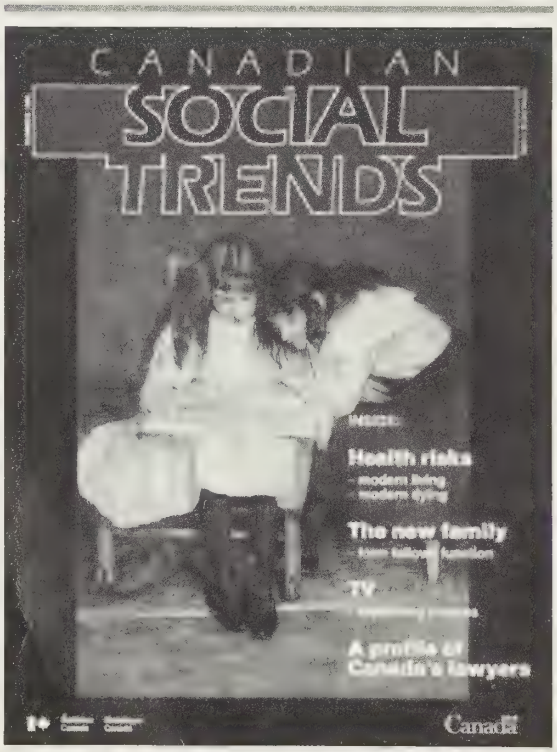
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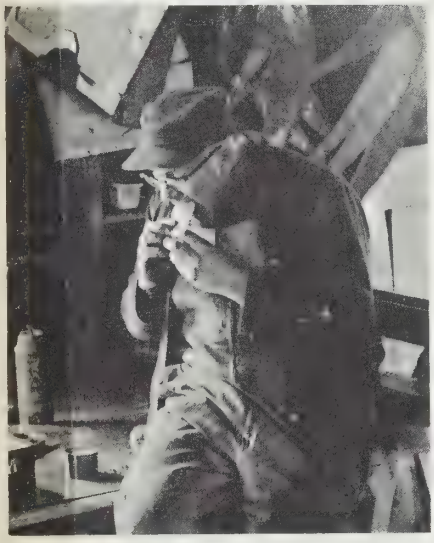
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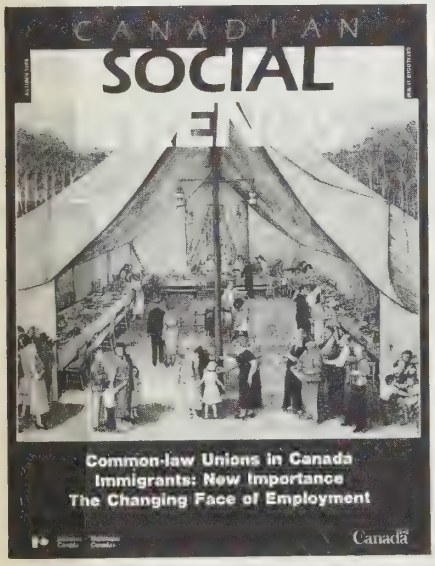
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ISSN 0831-5698

ANNUAL REVIEW OF LABOUR FORCE TRENDS

by Colin Lindsay and Craig McKie



The Canadian economy, like that of most western, industrialized nations, has undergone dramatic changes in the last several decades, changes that are reflected in the make-up and experience of the Canadian labour force. In addition to cyclical variations, highlighted by the severe economic downturn of the early 1980s, and the subsequent recovery, there are several sweeping trends characteristic of the Canadian labour force. These include the increasing labour force participation of women, particularly married women and women with children; the growing importance of service industries in the make-up of the economy; and the presence of persistently high levels of unemployment, especially among young workers. In addition, a growing share of employment is part-time, a phenomenon addressed in more detail in the next article.

Labour Force Terms

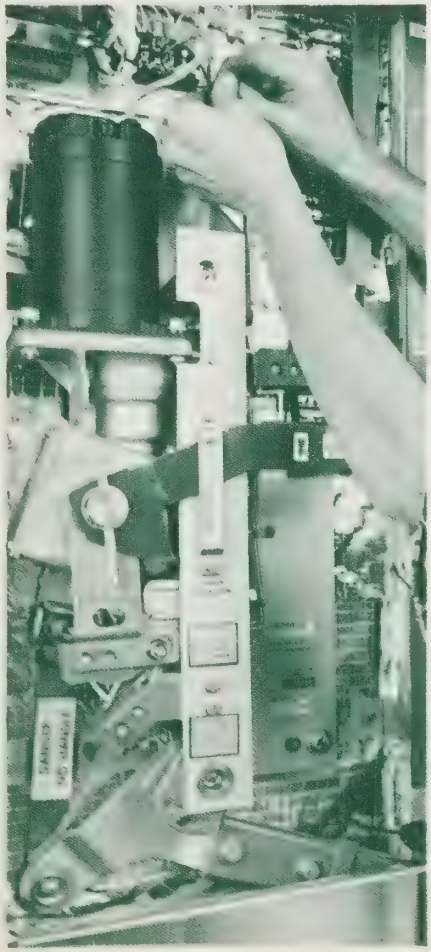
Some of the important technical terms used in this section are defined as follows. The **labour force** is that portion of the civilian, non-institutionalized population, 15 years of age and over, that is employed or seeking work. The **employed** are those at work, or those who have a job but are not at work because of illness, disability, vacation,labour dispute or other reason. The **unemployed** are those without work but available and looking for work.The **labour force participation rate** represents the labour force as a percentage of the population 15 years of age and over. The **unemployment rate** represents the unemployed as a percentage of the labour force. And the **employment/ population ratio** represents the employed as a percentage of the population 15 years of age and over.

Labour Force Participation

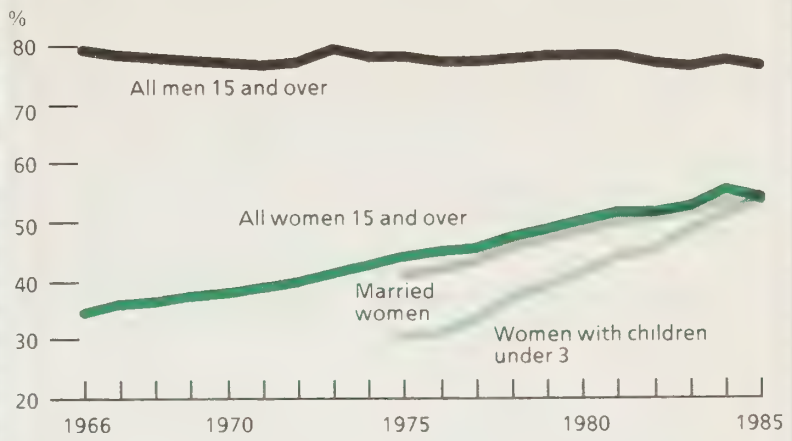
One of the most significant social trends in the past decade has been the continuing increase in the labour force participation of women. Between 1966 and 1985, the participation rate for women increased from 35.4% to 54.3%, while that of men declined from 79.8% in 1966 to 76.7% in 1985. The traditional barriers to the labour force participation

of women, such as marriage and childbearing, are now less likely to constrain women from entering the labour force or from remaining in it after either marriage or the birth of children. Between 1975 and 1985, for example, the labour force participation of married women increased from 41.6% to 54.7% while that of women with children under 3 years of age rose from 31.2% to 53.9%.

The differing labour force participation patterns of men and women also show clearly in trends in the employment/population ratio. Although the overall ratio increased only slightly between 1966 and 1985, from 55.4% to 58.4%, there have been dramatically different patterns in the male and female components. Throughout this period, the employment/population ratio for men has exhibited a downward tendency, dropping from 77.1% in 1966 to 68.7% in 1985. On the other hand, the ratio for women shows an opposite and even stronger trend, increasing from 34.2% to 48.5% over this same time period. As a result, the gap in the rates between the sexes has significantly narrowed from 42.9 percentage points in 1966 to 20.2 percentage points in 1985.

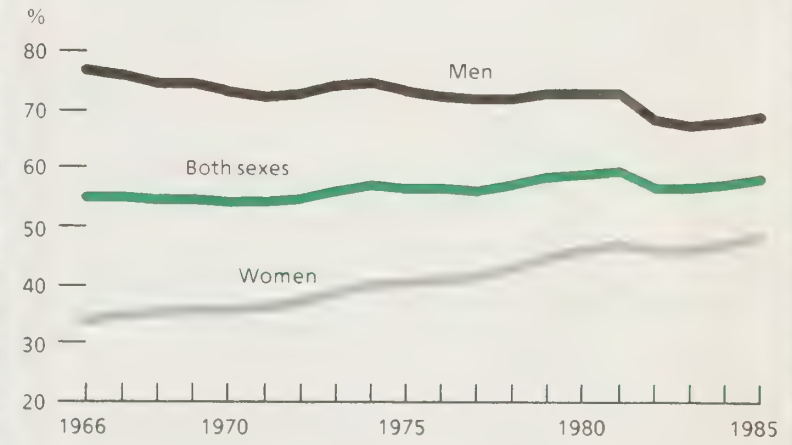


Labour Force Participation Rates, 1966-1985



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985.

Employment/Population Ratio, 1966-1985



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985.

The Growing Importance of Service Industries

Closely associated with the changes in labour force participation by men and women has been the much more rapid growth in employment in service-based industries compared with that in the goods-producing sector of the economy. Total employment in the service sector, which includes industries such as trade, transportation, communication, utilities, insurance, real estate, and business, community and personal service, grew by 61% between 1970 and 1985. During the same period, employment in the goods-producing sector of the economy increased by only 13%. One result of this trend is that the service industries increased their share of all jobs in Canada from 62.6% in 1970 to 66.5% in 1985.

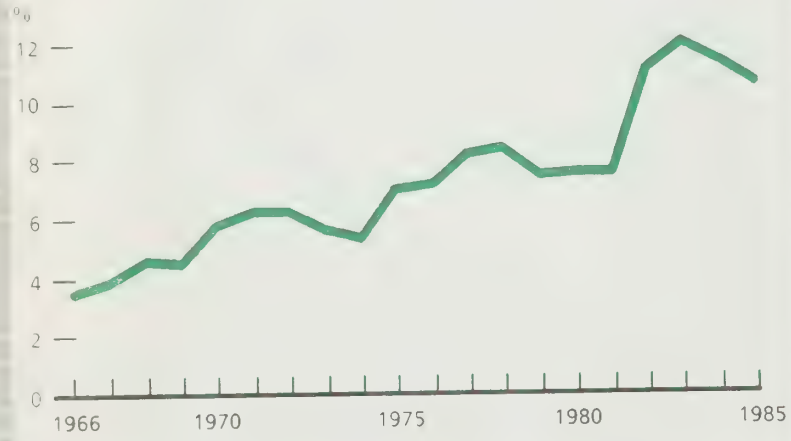
The shift in employment by sector has been most pronounced in the 1980s, largely because the goods-

Employment in Goods-producing and Service Sectors, 1970-1985



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985.

The Unemployment Rate, 1966-1985



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985

producing industries were more severely affected by the recession in the early years of the decade. The goods-producing sector employed 372,000 fewer persons in 1983 than in 1981, representing a decrease in employment of 10.6%. In 1984 and 1985, total employment in the goods-producing sector rebounded somewhat, increasing by 139,000 over the two year period. By contrast, employment in the service sector grew by 100,000 (1.3%) between 1981 and 1983, and by a further 438,000 in the 1984-1985 period.

This differential in the growth of goods-producing versus service industries has several implications for the labour market since the two sectors are inherently different in the type of employment associated with each. The service sector employs a higher proportion of women (50.5% in 1985, compared with 23.4% in the goods-producing sector). As well, the service sector has a higher proportion of part-time employment (19.5% in 1985, compared to 6.1% for the goods-producing sector). And, average weekly earnings in the goods producing sector are much higher– in September 1985, average weekly earnings in the service sector were 77% of those in the goods-producing industries. Finally, the goods-producing industries have a higher unemployment rate (12.0% in 1985 compared to 8.7% in the service sector).

If there is a continuation of the trend toward a more predominantly service- based economy, the participation rate for women may well continue to increase and the rate for men to decline, given the persistent sex profiles of various occupations found in each sector. As well, the increase in the number of part-time workers is likely to continue.

The Persistent Problem: Unemployment

Unemployment has generally increased over the last twenty years. The annual unemployment rate, which was under 4% in 1966, climbed to a peak of 11.9% in 1983, but declined to 10.5% in 1985 and dipped below 10% in the first few months of 1986. The overall growth in the unemployment rate since the mid- 1960s, however, has not been even. There were periods of rapid increase in the unemployment rate, for example, in the years 1966 to 1971, 1974 to 1978 and 1981 through 1983. While cyclical upturns in economic activity in the inter- vening years have resulted in a reduction in the unemployment rate, the rate has not fallen back to the previous low point. A similar pattern has emerged in the last several years. While the unemployment rate has declined significantly since 1983, it is still well above the average unemployment rate of 7.5% experienced in the years 1978-1980.

The increase in unemployment has been particularly noticeable among the young. The unemployment rate for men under the age of 25 rose from 12.5% in 1975 to a peak of 22.4% in 1983, then fell back to 18.2% in 1985. Among women between the ages of 15-24, unemployment increased from 11.4% in 1975 to 17.0% in 1983, before declining to 14.6% in 1985.

Although youth unemployment

rates are very high in comparison with the overall average (10.5% in 1985), persons under the age of 25 now make up a smaller proportion of the total unemployed population. In 1985, persons under age 25 constituted 36.5% of the unemployed compared with 47.9% in 1976. One reason for this decline is that as the population born during the baby boom has crossed into the over 25 age bracket, the total share of the population aged 15-24 has declined. In 1976, for example, persons aged 15-24 made up 26.3% of the total population 15 and over; by 1985, this proportion had fallen to 21.9%.

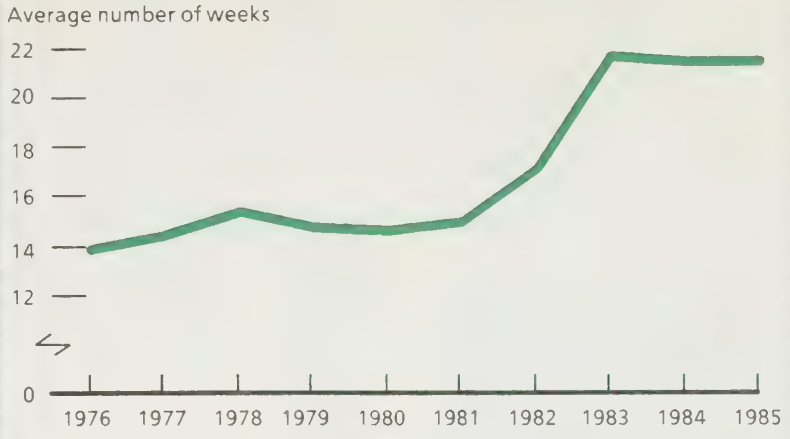
Unemployment has also increased significantly among those 25 and over, particularly among men. The unemployment rate for men aged 25-44 doubled from 4.4% in 1975 to 8.9% in 1985, while for men aged 45-64 the rate increased from 3.9% to 7.4% in the same period. The unemployment rates also increased for women over 25, although not as dramatically: from 7.1% in 1975 to 10.3% in 1985 for women aged 25-44 and from 5.4% to 7.8% for those aged 45-64. The unemployment rates of women aged 25 and over, which were considerably higher than those of men in 1975, were much less so by 1985.

Duration of Unemployment

Along with the increases in the unemployment rate, the average duration of periods of unemployment has also increased. In 1976, the average period of unemployment was 13.9 weeks; by 1985, it had risen to 21.6 weeks. And as a rule, the older the worker, the longer the periods of unemployment.

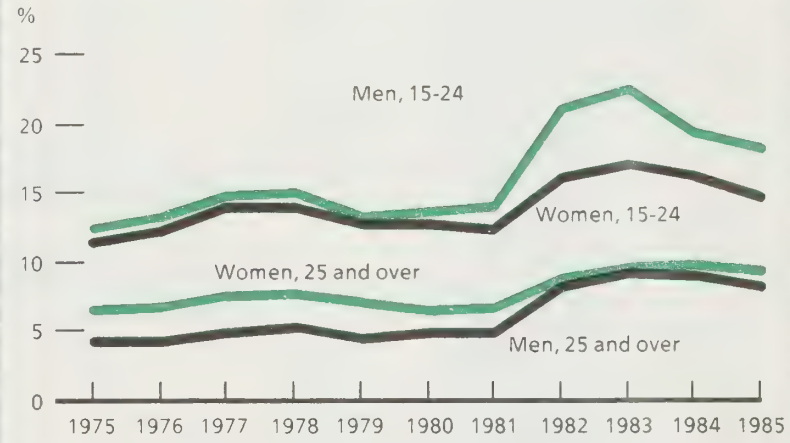
In 1985, the average duration of unemployment for those under 25 was 15.8 weeks compared to 23.1 weeks for those 25-44 and 29.6 weeks for those 45 and over. The shortest duration was for women under 25 who were unemployed for an average of 15.1 weeks. Younger persons, who often move in and out of the labour force while attending school, are more likely to accept part-time, temporary, or other lower-paying employment and therefore tend to be unemployed for shorter periods of time than older workers. In 1985, for instance, 26.2% of unemployed young people were seeking temporary or part-time work compared with 9.8% of older workers.

Average Duration of Unemployment, 1976-1985



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985.

Unemployment Rates by Age, 1975-1985



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985.

Unemployment: Unevenly Distributed by Province

The burden of unemployment falls disproportionately across Canada's provinces. In Newfoundland, for example, the unemployment rate was more than double the national average – over 20% of the labour force in Newfoundland was unemployed in 1985. The situation was most critical for young Newfoundlanders – 1 in 3 of those aged 15-24 was unemployed in 1985. The three other Atlantic Provinces – Prince Edward Island (13.2% unemployment in 1985), Nova Scotia (13.8%) and New Brunswick (15.2%), along with British Columbia (14.2%), also experienced unemployment rates considerably above the national average of 10.5% in 1985.

On the other hand, Ontario (8.0%), Saskatchewan (8.1%) and Manitoba (8.1%) had the lowest provincial unemployment rates while Alberta (10.1%) and Quebec (11.8%)

occupied the middle ground.

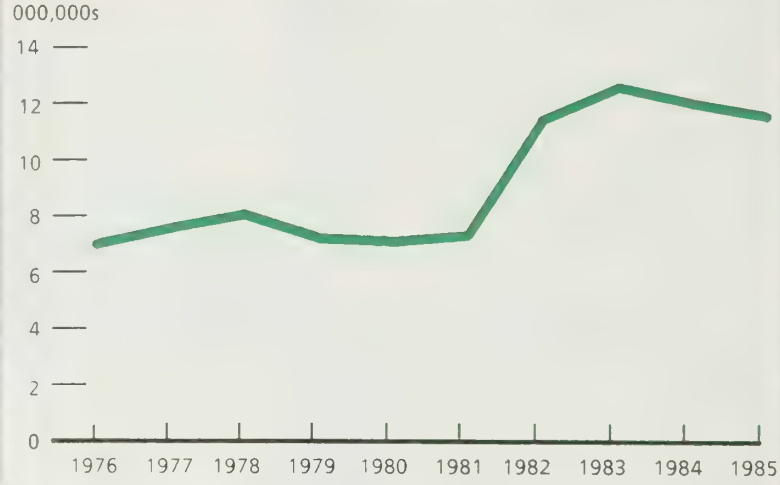
In addition, economic recovery in recent years has been felt unevenly across the country. The unemployment rate in six provinces (the four Atlantic Provinces plus Saskatchewan and B.C.) was higher in 1985 than in 1983. Ontario and Quebec, on the other hand, enjoyed large declines in their unemployment rates over this period. Manitoba and Alberta also had falling unemployment rates, although the declines were not as large as in the two central provinces.



Federal Expenditures on Unemployment Benefits

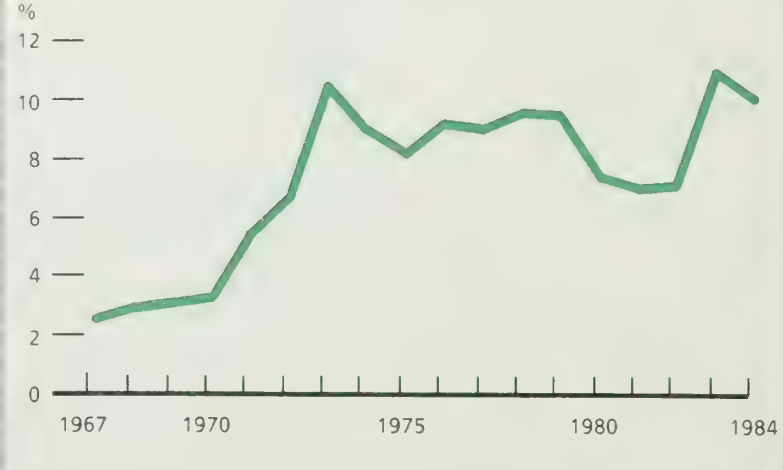
As unemployment rates have risen, so have the number of beneficiaries of Unemployment Insurance, as well as government expenditures on unemployment benefits. During the years 1976 through 1981, the average number of monthly UIC beneficiaries ranged from just over 700,000 to just over 800,000. During the next four years, however, the average number of monthly beneficiaries was 1.2 million. For the fiscal year which ended in 1984, the total federal expenditure on unemployment benefits was $10.1 billion which represented 9.9% of total Federal expenditures. This was up from 7.2% in 1982, but lower than the 1983 figure of 10.8%.

Average Number of Monthly Unemployment Insurance Beneficiaries, 1976-1985



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 73-202, *Unemployment Insurance Statistics.*

Unemployment Insurance Benefits as a Percentage of Total Federal Government Expenditures, 1967-1984



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 68-211, *Federal Government Finance: Revenue and Expenditure, Assets and Liabilities.*

Unemployment Rates by Province

	1975	1983	1985
		%	
Newfoundland	14.0	18.8	21.3
Prince Edward Island	8.0	12.2	13.2
Nova Scotia	7.7	13.2	13.8
New Brunswick	9.8	14.8	15.2
Quebec	8.1	13.9	11.8
Ontario	6.3	10.4	8.0
Manitoba	4.5	9.4	8.1
Saskatchewan	2.9	7.4	8.1
Alberta	4.1	10.8	10.1
British Columbia	8.5	13.8	14.2
Canada	6.9	11.9	10.5

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985.

KEEPING TRACK

In 1981, 58% of lone-parent families were the result of marriage breakdown, up from 25% in 1941.

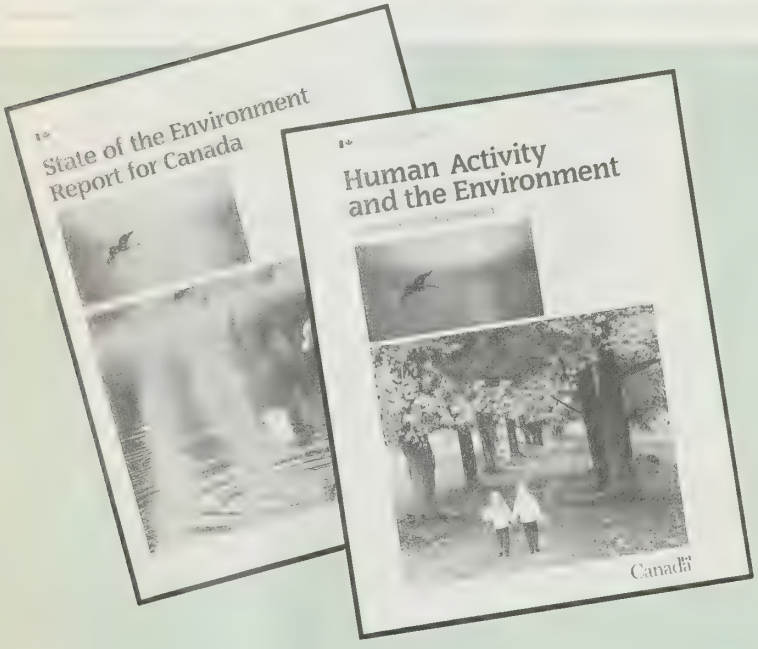
Canadian Labour Force Estimates, Annual Averages, 1946 to 1985

	Population 15 years and over	Labour Force			Not in labour force	Participation rate	Unemployment rate	Employment/ population ratio
		Total	Employed	Unemployed				
				000's				
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	3,950	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	4,065	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	4,153	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	4,213	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950[1]	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	4,453	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	4,509	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	4,632	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	4,767	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	4,898	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	4,987	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	5,025	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	5,115	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	5,250	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	5,363	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	5,420	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	5,531	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	5,665	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	5,787	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	5,884	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	5,986	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966[2]	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	5,590	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	5,697	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	5,854	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	5,968	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	6,133	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	6,233	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	6,289	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	6,250	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	6,285	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	6,349	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	6,498	61.1	7.1	56.7
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	6,550	61.6	8.1	56.6
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	6,482	62.7	8.3	57.5
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	6,472	63.4	7.4	58.7
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	6,480	64.1	7.5	59.3
1981	18,375	11,904	11,006	898	6,471	64.8	7.5	59.9
1982	18,664	11,958	10,644	1,314	6,706	64.1	11.0	57.0
1983	18,917	12,183	10,734	1,448	6,735	64.4	11.9	56.7
1984	19,148	12,399	11,000	1,399	6,749	64.8	11.3	57.4
1985	19,372	12,639	11,311	1,328	6,733	65.2	10.5	58.4

[1] Annual averages from 1950 onward include Newfoundland

[2] Population aged 15 and over from 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on population aged 14 and over. Estimates from 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

The Most Important Assessment of Canada's Environment Ever Published



Environment Canada and Statistics Canada have combined their efforts to prepare two new publications, which are intended to increase broad public awareness of the state of Canada's environment and to stimulate discussion about its links to the economy and human health.

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Together, these two publications provide a unique source of information on Canada's environment. They will serve as valuable reference tools for government and industry, as well as for consultants, environmentalists, students and the general public.

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For further information about **Human Activity and the Environment**, please contact your local Statistics Canada reference centre, listed in the blue pages of many telephone books.

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THE GROWTH OF PART-TIME WORK

by Mary Anne Burke

One of the most dramatic changes in the labour force in the last decade has been the growth of part-time employment. Part-time work permits employers greater flexibility in filling labour needs and allows employees flexibility in combining work with other activities such as family responsibilities or studies. As such, part-time employment is common among certain segments of the labour force, particularly women and students.

Part-time employment, however, does imply certain costs to employees. In terms of pay, benefits, pensions, training, and access to promotion, part-time workers are often disadvantaged compared to full-time workers. This has particular relevance for the pursuit of sexual equality in the work place in that women make up the large majority of part-time workers. As well, a growing number of Canadians are bearing the costs of part-time work



involuntarily: the number of Canadians working part-time because they cannot find full-time employment has increased substantially in the last decade.

Part-time Employment

The statistics on part-time employment used in this publication refer to individuals who usually work fewer than thirty hours per week. In addition to regular or permanent part-time employment, part-time work may be on a casual, intermittent, contingent, temporary, seasonal or contract basis. Part-time employment may also include job- or work-sharing arrangements.

Growth of Part-time Employment

Over the period 1975 to 1985, total part-time employment in Canada increased by 78%, from 988,000 to 1,757,000. In the same period, full-time employment grew by just over 15%, with the result that part-time workers, as a proportion of the employed work force, increased from 11% in 1975 to 16% in 1985.

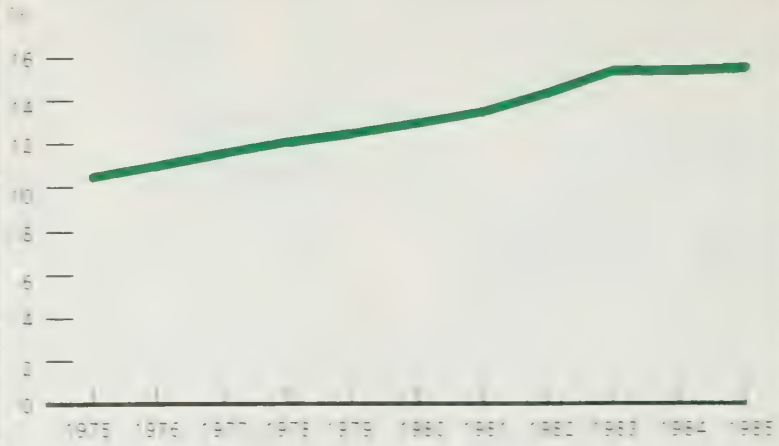
The different growth rates of full-time and part-time employment were particularly noticeable during the economic downturn of the early 1980s. In the years 1981-1983, total full-time employment declined by 436,000 or 5%. Part-time employment, on the other hand, continued to grow. The total number of persons working part-time increased by 164,000 or 11% during this period. In 1984, and again in 1985, growth in full-time employment rebounded strongly. Over this two-year period, full-time employment grew by 716,000 compared with an increase of 174,000 for part-time. The overall growth rate for full-time employment of 5.2% in 1984-1985, though, was still lower than that recorded for part-time employment (6.4%). The net result was that over the period 1981-1985, total growth in part-time employment (+338,000) was greater than that in full-time work (+280,000).

Who Works Part-time?

Part-time work is now largely the preserve of women. In 1985, 72% of all part-time employees were women, and more than one out of every four (26%) employed women worked part-time, compared with just 8% of men. Part-time employment of women has been the single fastest growing component of the employed Canadian labour force in the last decade. Between 1975 and 1985, the number of women employed part-time grew by 84% from 687,000 to 1,263,000. In the same period, the number of men employed part-time grew by 192,000, a 64% increase. During the same period, total full-time employment increased 31% for women and 7% for men.

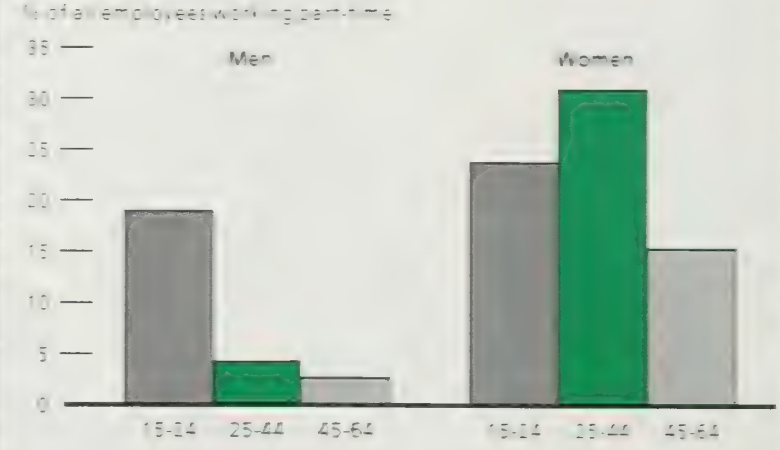
Men between the ages of 15-24, most of whom are students, also constitute a major source of part-time labour – 19% of the total in 1985. Men aged 25-64, on the other hand, made up just 7% of part-time workers in 1985 despite the fact that they

Part-time Employment as a Percentage of Total Employment, 1975-1985



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529 *Labour Force Annual Averages* and 71-001 *The Labour Force*, December 1985

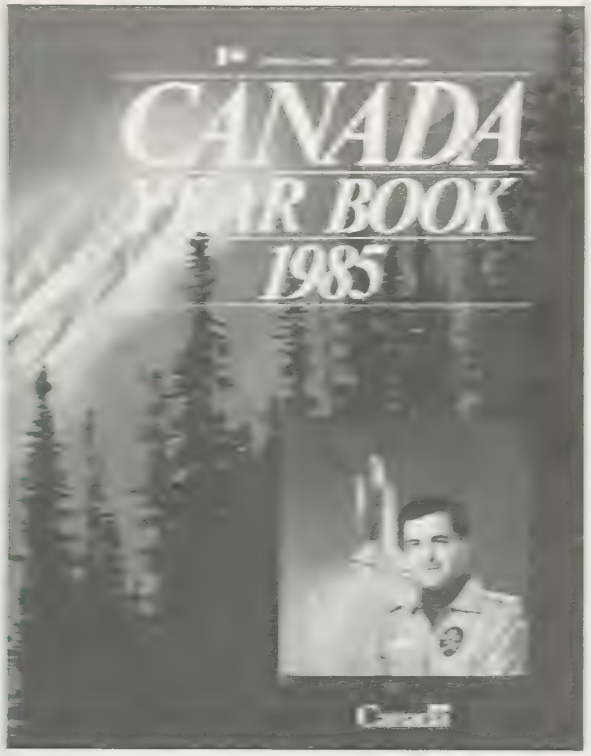
The Distribution of Part-time Employment by Age and Sex, 1985



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529 *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985

Designed to serve as a reference work, this is the latest edition in a series which began many years ago. It presents a comprehensive picture of Canada and serves as a guide to other national sources. Containing a wealth of information, it provides a synopsis of the Canadian government, its programs, Commissions and Inquiry Commissions etc. This work examines the last two federal elections, the recent economic recession and worldwide trade, the trends in smaller families, more divorces and an increase in the aging population as well as consumer spending patterns. Widely used by librarians, parliamentarians, teachers, diplomats, journalists and readers interested in Canadians and Canadian life-styles.

an essential statistical reference



Canada Yearbook 1985. Catalogue No. 11-402E (biennial), is available for $54.00 in Canada ($70.00 elsewhere) from Publication Sales and Services, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6. Telephone: (613) 993-7276.

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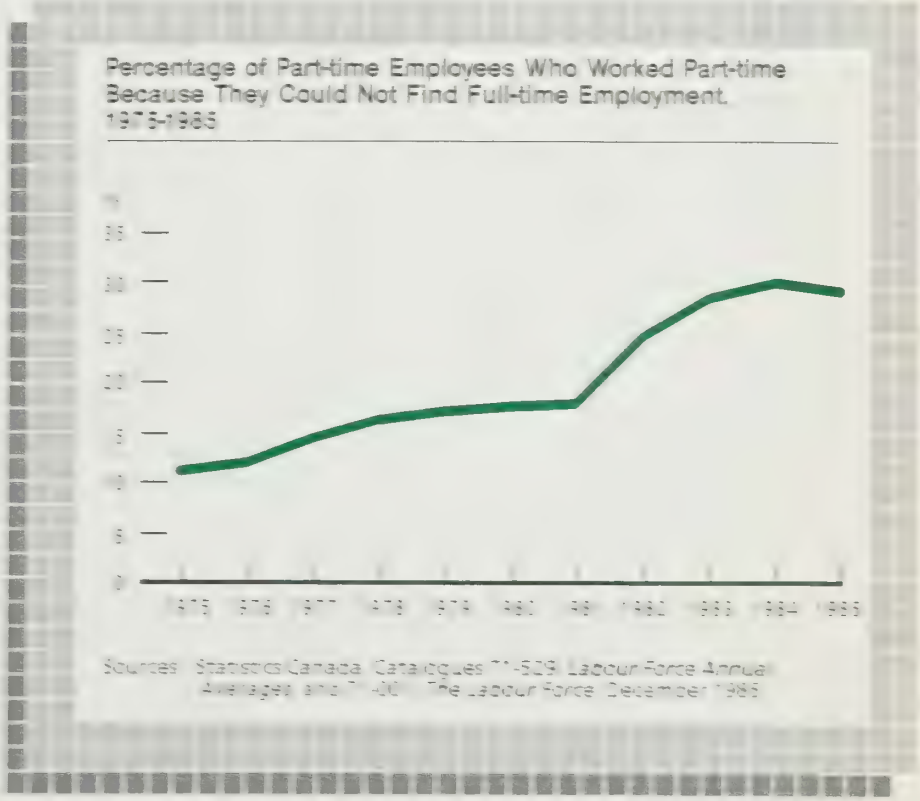
represented 44% of the total employed labour force.

Relatively high rates of part-time employment can be found among women of all ages. In 1985, 46% of employed women under the age of 25 worked part-time, along with 22% of women aged 25–44 and 24% of those aged 45–64. In contrast, while slightly more than 1 in 4 (27%) men under age 25 had part-time jobs, only 2% of employed men between the ages of 25–44 and 3% of those aged 45–64 worked part-time. As well, while roughly similar proportions of single and married women were employed part-time in 1985 (40% of single women compared with 26% of married women), only 3% of married men had part-time jobs compared with 22% of single men.

Reasons for Working Part-time

The proportion of employees who work part-time because they cannot find full-time jobs has increased substantially since the mid 1970's. In 1975, just over one in ten of those working part-time reported they did so because they could not find full-time jobs. By 1985 the ratio had risen to three in ten as over half a million Canadians reported they could only find part-time jobs. Most of this increase has occurred since 1981.

Still, the large majority of individuals who work part-time report they do so because of factors other than those related directly to the



labour market: in 1985, 32% said they simply did not want to work full-time; 27% were attending school; 9% were precluded from working full-time because of personal or family responsibilities; and 2% cited other reasons.

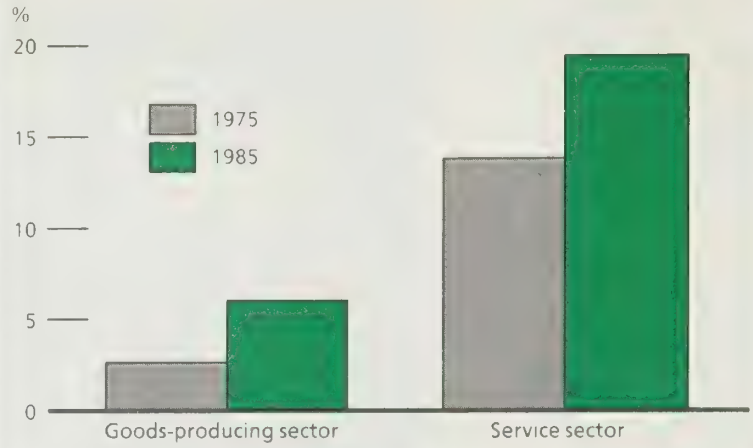
There is considerable variation in the reasons given for working part-time among different population subgroups. For example, in 1985, over half of both single men (62%) and single women (58%) worked part-time because they were attending school. Among married, female part-time employees the majority (53%) reported they did not want full-time work. Among married men, the largest proportion (44%) reported they could not find full-time employment.

Part-time Employment by Industry

The growth of part-time employment in the 1975-1985 period reflects two distinct patterns in the industrial make-up of the Canadian economy. On the one hand, those industries with the highest incidence of part-time employment accounted for most of the growth in total employment in this period; but at the same time part-time employment increased in all industries.

The service sector of the economy has traditionally had much higher rates of part-time employment than the goods-producing industries. In 1975, for example, almost 14% of jobs in the service sector were part-time compared to less than 3% in the goods-producing sector. It is the ser-

Part-time Employment as a Percentage of Total Employment in the Goods-producing and Service Sectors of the Economy, 1975 and 1985



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985.

Demographic and Health Indicators



Health researchers looking for ways to present their findings need look no further. Our new publication, **Demographic and Health Indicators** shows how to formulate raw data into meaningful indices.

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Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

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vice sector which accounted for most of the recent growth in employment. Between 1975 and 1985, employment in the service sector grew by almost 1.9 million. In comparison, employment in the goods-producing sector increased by only 654,000.

In addition, the percentage of employment classified as part-time has increased in both sectors. Growth in part-time employment made up 38% of the growth of total service sector employment, and 20% of that in the goods-producing sector in the 1975-1985 period. As a result, by 1985, 20% of service sector workers were part-timers. The figure for goods-producing workers was 6%.

These patterns appear to hold for specific industries as well. The two industries with the highest proportion of part-time employees — (1) trade, and (2) community, business and personal service — were also by far the fastest growing industries. In fact, these two industries (in both of which one in four workers was employed part-time in 1985) made up 74% of the overall growth in employment in Canada between 1975 and 1985. Over 40% of the increase in employment in these two industries was accounted for by part-time employees. However, significant growth in part-time's share of total employment occurred in all major industrial categories, with the exception of the primary industries and mining which traditionally have little or no part-time employment.

Wages and Benefits

Part-time workers have lower average hourly wages and lower rates of pension coverage than do full-time workers. Within the generally lower rates of pay for part-time work, women have lower average hourly earnings than men, although the gap between male and female part-time workers is smaller than it is between men and women full-time employees.

In 1984, the average hourly wage of part-time workers was 66% that of their full-time counterparts: part-time workers earned an average of $6.85 an hour compared to $10.41 for full-time workers. The gap closes considerably among unionized workers where the average hourly wage rates were $10.68 for part-time workers and $12.27 for full-timers. Non-unionized part-time workers averaged only $5.84 an hour compared with $9.17 for similar full-time workers.

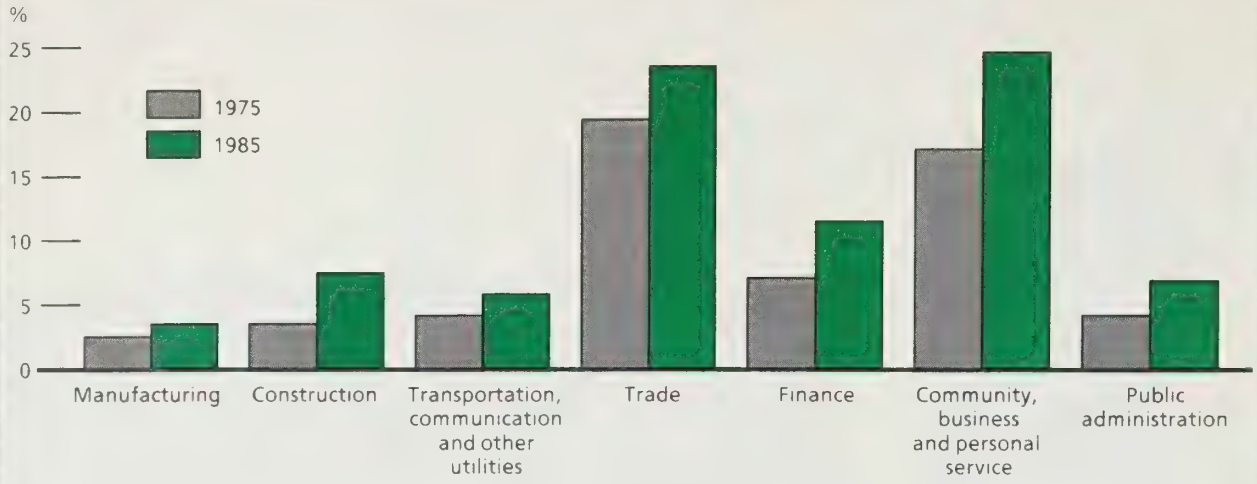
Reasons for Working Part-time, 1985

	Men		Women	
	Single	Married	Single	Married
		%		
Personal or family responsibilities	–	–	–	19.2
Going to school	62.3	7.4	57.7	1.4
Did not want full-time	7.0	38.8	10.2	53.4
Could only find part-time	29.3	43.8	30.1	24.9
Other	1.1	7.4	1.2	1.2

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985.



Part-time Employment as a Percentage of Total Employment by Industry, 1975 and 1985



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, December 1985

Female part-time employees have lower average earnings than part-time male workers, but the gap between male and female part-time workers is smaller than that for men and women full-timers. In 1981, women employed full-time had average hourly earnings which were 78% of those of full-time male workers, while female part-time workers made 92% of what male part-time employees earned per hour. The simple, direct comparison of the average earnings of male and female part-time employees is somewhat misleading in that a large percentage of male part-timers are young and have not yet reached their prime earning years.

Few part-time workers are unionized or covered by collective agreements. In 1984, 16% of all part-time workers in Canada were union members compared to 38% of full-time workers. As well, in 1984, just 9% of part-time workers, compared with 49% of full-time workers were covered by an employer-sponsored pension plan.

The Future of Part-time Work in Canada

The growth of part-time work in the past decade has implications for a number of questions related to future developments in the quality of life in Canada. These include:

- Are productivity and quality of work affected by a dependence on part-time workers?
- Is part-time work compatible with the concept of a career?
- What effects does part-time work have on the division of household work and the provision of family income?
- What are the consequences for retirement incomes?

If the trend toward part-time employment continues, these and other questions will deserve further study.

KEEPING TRACK

According to a 1984 Canadian Bankers' Association Report, nine families in Canada control 46% of the value of the most important companies on the Toronto Stock Exchange. The six biggest conglomerates in Canada control a total of 723 companies, according to Statistics Canada.

EDUCATION IN CANADA: SELECTED HIGHLIGHTS

by Jo-Anne Parliament

Questions as to whether Canadians are "better" educated now than in the past are often raised, but little data on the actual quality of education are available. What is known is that the overall educational qualifications of Canadians are higher than ever before. Between 1971 and 1981, the percentage of all Canadians 15 years and over with a university degree increased from 5% to 8%. There were even greater improvements among Canadians aged 25-44, the age group which has been most influenced by increased university attendance since the 1960s. In 1981, 14% of Canadians in this age group had a university degree, double the 1971 figure.



The Educational Attainment of Canadians, 1971 and 1981

	15 years and over		25-44 years	
	1971	1981	1971	1981
		%		
Less than Grade 9	32.3	20.7	28.1	12.1
Grades 9-13	45.9	43.6	44.1	38.9
Some postsecondary	17.1	27.6	20.4	35.2
University degree	4.8	8.0	7.3	13.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-579, *1981 Census of Canada, Historical Tables for Census Education Data, 1971, 1976 and 1981.*

Still, in 1981, the majority of Canadians aged 15 and over – 64% – had a high school education or less, although this figure is falling. In 1971, 78% of the adult population had not gone beyond high school. And again, this figure declined even more sharply among the population aged 25-44. In 1981, 51% of those in this age group had completed high school or less, down from 72% in 1971.

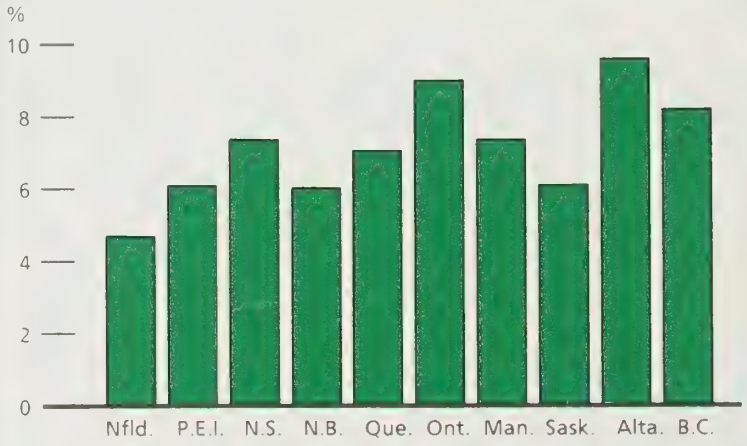
Most of the fall in the proportion of the population with a high school education or less has been accounted for by a decline in the percentage of Canadians with less than a Grade 9 education. For the population 15 and over, 21% had only an elementary school education in 1981, compared with 32% in 1971. An even sharper decline occurred among those aged 25-44: in 1981, 12% had less than a Grade 9 education, less than one-half the 1971 percentage (28%). As well, in 1981, the percentage of Canadians in this age bracket with less than Grade 9 education was smaller than the proportion with a university degree. This is the first generation in which this reversal has occurred.

There is variation among the provinces with regard to educational attainment. Alberta and Ontario had the highest percentage of degree holders among their populations aged 15 and over – 10% in Alberta and 9% in Ontario in 1981. Newfoundland at 5%, and P.E.I., New Brunswick and Saskatchewan at 6% had the lowest percentage of degree holders in their adult populations. Alberta (13%), followed by British Columbia (14%) and Ontario (18%) had the lowest proportion of their adult populations with less than Grade 9 educations; while Newfoundland (31%), New Brunswick (29%) and Quebec (27%) were characterized by the highest percentage of population with less than Grade 9 educations.

Elementary and Secondary Enrolments Decline

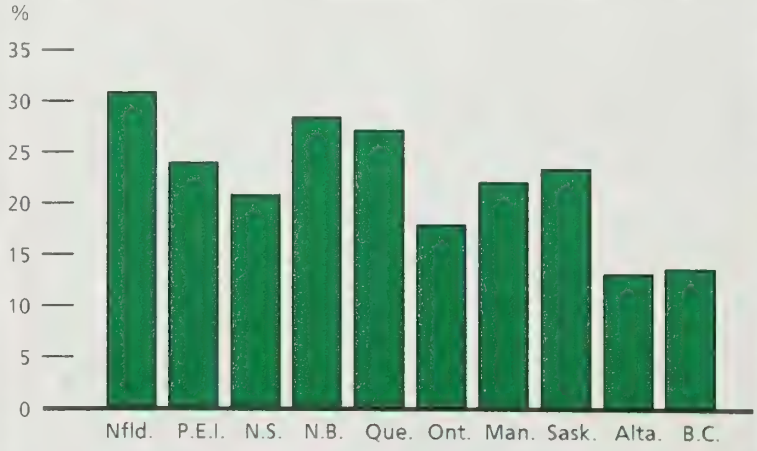
Total enrolment at elementary and secondary schools has declined in recent years, paralleling the shrinking school-age population. Enrolment at these levels peaked in 1970 at 5.84 million and declined to 4.95 million by 1984. Given that the school-age population has been projected to decline even farther, the number of students in elementary and secondary schools will also continue to fall. It is difficult to determine what effect this

Percentage of Adult Population with a University Degree, by Province, 1981



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-579, *1981 Census of Canada, Historical Tables for Census Education Data, 1971, 1976 and 1981.*

Percentage of Adult Population with Less than Grade 9 Education, by Province, 1981



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-579, *1981 Census of Canada, Historical Tables for Census Education Data, 1971, 1976 and 1981.*

continued decline will have on the number of teachers. While the total number of students in elementary and secondary schools declined by 15% between 1970 and 1984, the trend for teachers did not follow a similar curve. In fact, the number of public school teachers (excluding those in Quebec) increased until 1977 and has declined by just 3% since then (from 196,000 in 1977 to 190,600 in 1984).

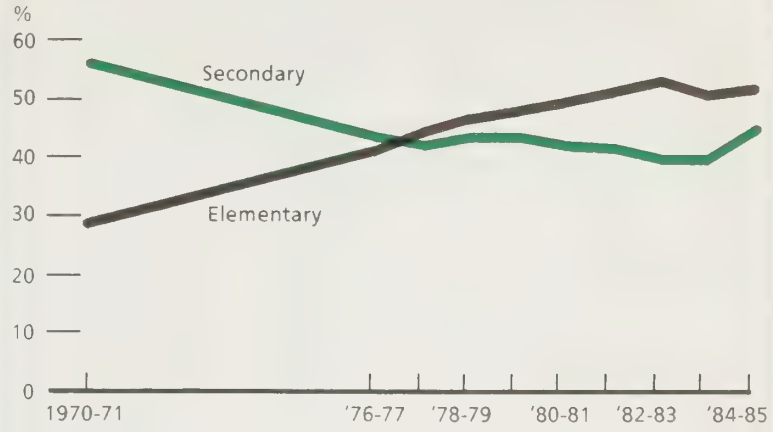
Second Language Education in Public Schools

Since 1970, there have been two kinds of second language training in Canadian schools: (1) taking the second language as a regular subject, and (2) immersion programmes.[1] In the provinces outside Quebec, the number of students in English schools[2] taking French in one of these forms increased by 13% between 1970-71 and 1984-85, from 1.5 million to 1.7 million. This translates into an increase in the percentage of students enrolled in French language programmes from 38% to 49% over this period.

Increased participation in French language programmes, however, has been largely the result of increased participation at the elementary level. Among elementary students, the percentage studying French rose from 29% in 1970-71 to 52% in 1984-85. At the secondary level, the proportion of students taking French language courses dropped from 56% in 1970-71 to 40% in 1983-84, although this figure rebounded to 45% in 1984-85.

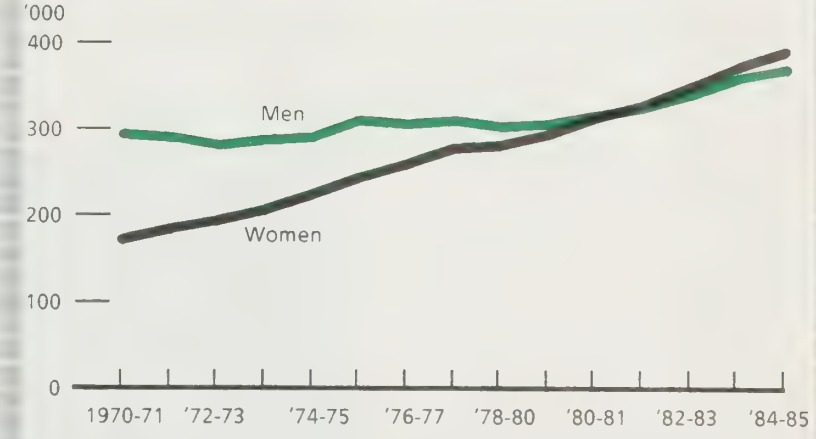
In Quebec, second language education is compulsory from Grade 4 until the end of high school. As a result, participation in the programme has remained relatively constant at around 40% in elementary schools and 98% at the secondary level.

Percentage of Students in English Public Schools (Outside of Quebec) Enrolled in French Language Programmes, 1970-71 to 1984-85



Note: Alberta included only in 1970-71 and since 1983-84.
Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-257, *Minority and Second Language Education, Elementary and Secondary Levels.*

University Enrolment, 1970-71 to 1984-85



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 81-229, *Education in Canada, and* 81-204, *Universities: Enrolment and Degrees;* and Education, Culture and Tourism Division, revised tabulations.

Women Lead Increase in University Enrolment

One of the most dramatic trends in Canadian education since the beginning of the 1970s has been the continuing increase in university enrolment, particularly among women.

Total university enrolment in Canada rose 63% between 1970-71 and 1984-85, from 466,000 to 760,600. And fully three-quarters of this growth was due to the increase in the number of women attending university. The number of women enrolled in university more than doubled from 172,500 in 1970-71 to 390,500 in 1984-85. In contrast, the number of men rose 26% over the same period, from 293,600 to 370,100.

As a result of the number of women at university increasing so much faster than that of men, women now make up the majority of university students. In 1984-85, 51% of university students were women compared with 37% in

Footnotes

(1) Trends related to French immersion are presented in more detail in the accompanying article.

(2) Francophone students enrolled in French schools outside Quebec are considered to be enrolled in minority language education programs and are not included in these totals.

1970-71. Female students, however, are still not as well represented in graduate programmes as they are at the undergraduate level. While 53% of undergraduate students were women in 1984-85, women made up just 41% of graduate students. Both these figures have increased since the early 1970s. In 1970-71, women made up only 39% of undergraduate enrolment and 23% of graduate enrolment.

Part-time studies have become an increasingly attractive option for people whose work, family or financial responsibilities preclude full-time enrolment, as well as for those wanting to upgrade their skills or knowledge. This is particularly true for women: at the undergraduate level, part-time enrolment of women more than doubled from 60,300 in 1970-71 to 149,200 in 1984-85. The number of men enrolled part-time, on the other hand, rose just 19% over the same period, from 81,900 to 97,300. As a result, women made up 61% of part-time undergraduate enrolment in 1984-85. Similar trends were evident at the part-time graduate level, although there are still more men studying at this level than women. The number of female part-time graduate students increased from 3,400 to 16,000 between 1970-71 and 1984-85, while the number of men rose from 11,000 to 19,400 over the same period.

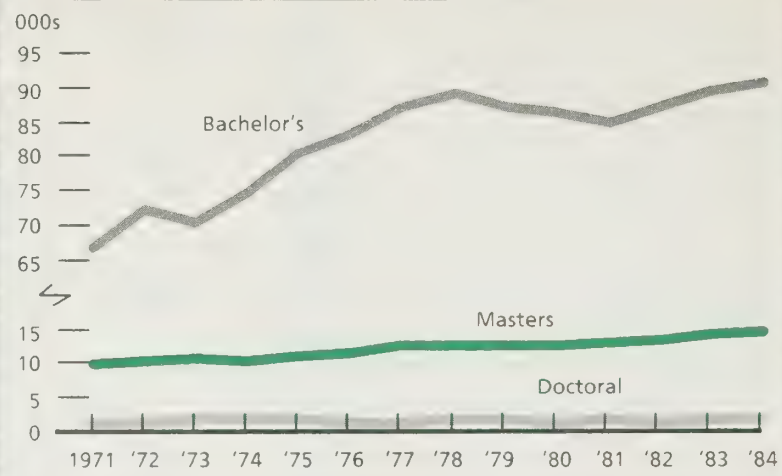
University Degrees

As one would expect, the granting of university degrees has roughly paralleled trends in enrolment. Between 1971 and 1984, the total number of bachelor's degrees escalated rapidly, although the majority of the increase occurred before 1978. The number of bachelor's degrees rose 33% from 67,000 in 1971 to 89,300 in 1978. The number declined to 84,900 in 1981, but rose to 90,600 in 1984. The number of master's degrees awarded also increased sharply between 1971 and 1984, although the increase was more even than that for bachelor's degrees. The number of master's degrees granted increased 50% from 9,600 to 14,376 in that period.

On the other hand, the total number of Ph.D.'s granted rose just 14% in this period, and there were actually fewer Ph.D.'s granted in Canada in 1984 (1,850) than in the peak year of 1973 (1,930).

Although women account for an increasingly greater percentage of graduates at all levels, the more advanced the degree, the smaller the percentage of female graduates.

University Degrees Granted, 1971-1984



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204, *Universities: Enrolments and Degrees;* and Education, Culture and Tourism Division, revised tabulations.



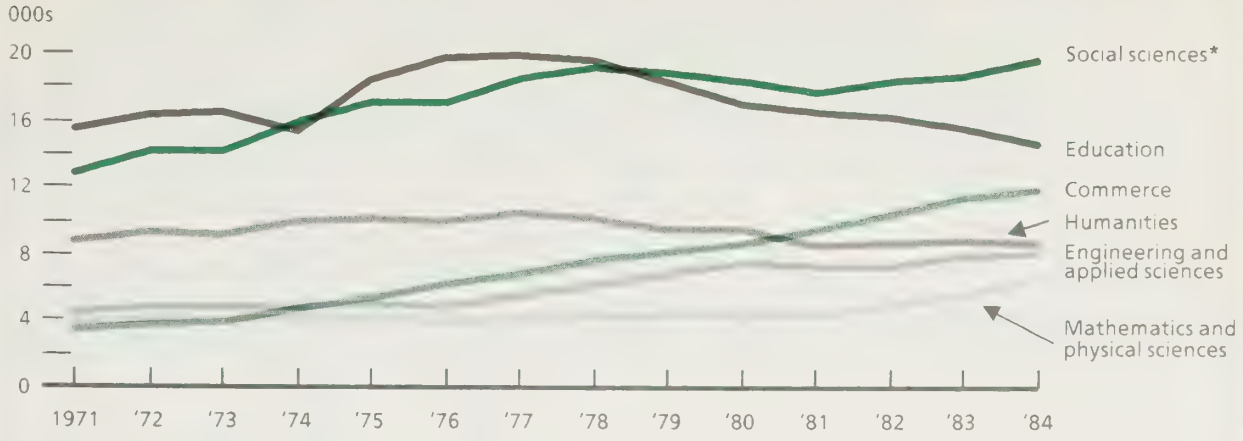
In 1984, women earned 51% of bachelor's degrees, 41% of master's and 27% of doctorates. The corresponding percentages in 1971 were 38%, 22% and 9%.

Degrees Granted by Field of Study

The increase in the number of bachelor's graduates from what are often considered more employment-oriented faculties, such as commerce, engineering, and mathematics and the physical sciences, has been particularly noticeable since the beginning of the 1970s. On the other hand, there were fewer degrees granted in 1984 than in the late seventies in the social sciences, humanities and education.

The growth in the number of bachelor's degrees granted in commerce has been most remarkable. Between 1971 and 1984, the number of business degree recipients more than tripled from 3,400 to 11,900. And by 1984, commerce degrees accounted for 13% of all bachelor's degrees, up from 5% in 1971. The number of engineering graduates grew rapidly between 1976 and 1980, increasing by over 50% from 4,800 to 7,300. Since then, however, growth has been slower with an increase of just 8% in the number of engineering graduates between 1980 and 1984.

Bachelor's Degrees Granted in Selected Areas of Study, 1971-1984



*Excluding commerce.
Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204, *Universities: Enrolment and Degrees;* and Education, Culture and Tourism Division, revised tabulations.

Growth in the number of mathematics and the physical sciences graduates was slower than in commerce or engineering during the seventies, with the number of degree recipients climbing by 13%. However, between 1981 and 1984 graduates in mathematics and the physical sciences increased by 51% to 6,500 from 4,300.

After increasing sharply through much of the 1970s, the number of education degrees granted at the bachelor's level has declined steadily since the late 1970s, with the result that there were fewer education degrees granted in 1984 than in 1971. Between 1971 and 1977, the number of education degrees granted rose 29% from 15,400 to 19,800, but declined to 14,400 in 1984. This decline is at least partly in response to declining overall enrolment at elementary and secondary schools, which makes teaching opportunities scarce.

The number of social science graduates at the bachelor's level also declined during the late 1970s, but increased 11% between 1981 and 1984. In 1984, there were 19,700 degrees granted, compared with 17,700 in 1981.

During the 1970s, the increase in the number of master's degrees granted was greatest in commerce, education and the social sciences; on the other hand, the number of degrees granted in the humanities, engineering, and mathematics and the physical sciences declined during this period. During the early 1980s, however, the number of master's degree recipients has been growing in all fields with the exception of education.

Growth in the number of graduates over the 1981-1984 period was particularly large in engineering and the applied sciences (+51%), mathematics and the physical sciences (+32%), and commerce (+29%). Totals for the social sciences and the humanities also grew in this period, but by smaller amounts: + 6% for the social sciences and +7% in the humanities. The number of persons graduating with master's degrees in education, however, declined by 13% in this period.

In contrast to the trends at the bachelor's level, there were fewer Ph.D. graduates in mathematics and the physical sciences, and engineering in 1984 than at the beginning of the seventies. On the other hand, education and social sciences both had more doctoral graduates in 1984 than in 1971. Most of these shifts, however, occurred during the first half of the 1970s. While there have been year-to-year fluctuations in the number of Ph.D. graduates in different fields, there has been no clear trend upward or downward for any faculty since the mid-1970s.

University Graduates Employed in Higher Paying Jobs

Having a postsecondary education has long been viewed as a key to job

Average Annual Earnings of Full-time Workers[1] by Level of Education, 1971 and 1982

	1971		1982	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
			$	
Less than Grade 9	6,722	3,732	20,073	11,804
Grades 9-13	8,332	4,734	22,778	14,087
Some postsecondary	9,955	5,903	24,662	16,577
Postsecondary certificate or diploma	9,813	6,569	26,123	17,607
University degree	15,589	9,541	36,266	24,380
Total	8,770	5,232	25,096	16,056

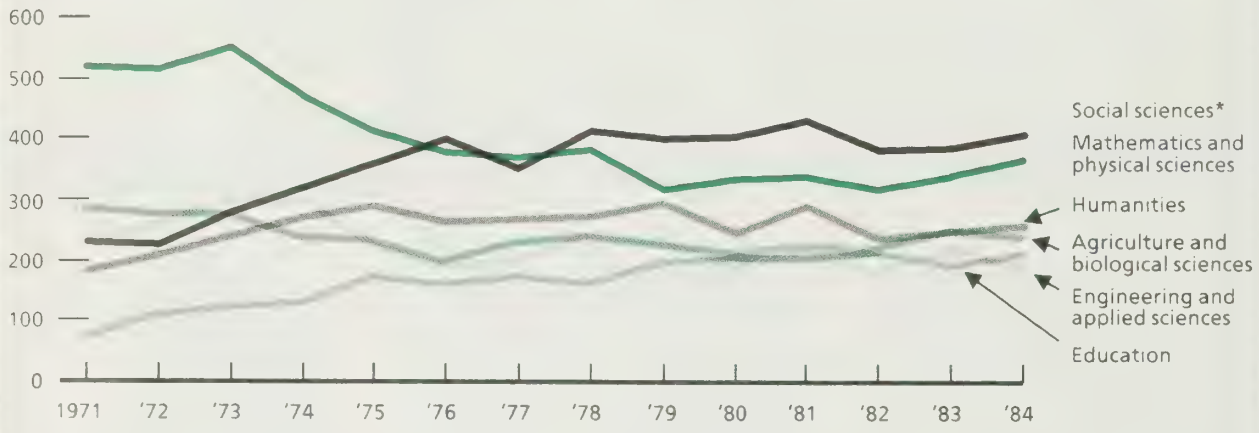
[1] Includes those working mostly full-time 50-52 weeks in 1971, and 49-52 weeks in 1982.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-577, *Earnings of Men and Women.*

market competitiveness. Although acquiring a university degree does not guarantee immediate access to a well-paying job, it can play a critical role in providing job opportunities and potential career advancement. Data on employment and earnings show that overall, university graduates still stand a higher chance of being employed, and of earning more than those with lower educational qualifications.

Although unemployment rates overall are higher in 1985 than they were in 1975, those with a university degree still have a much lower rate than those without such qualifications. In 1985, the unemployment rate for those 15 years and over with a university degree was 4.9% compared with 11.3% for those without; in 1975, corresponding rates were 3.0% and 7.3%.

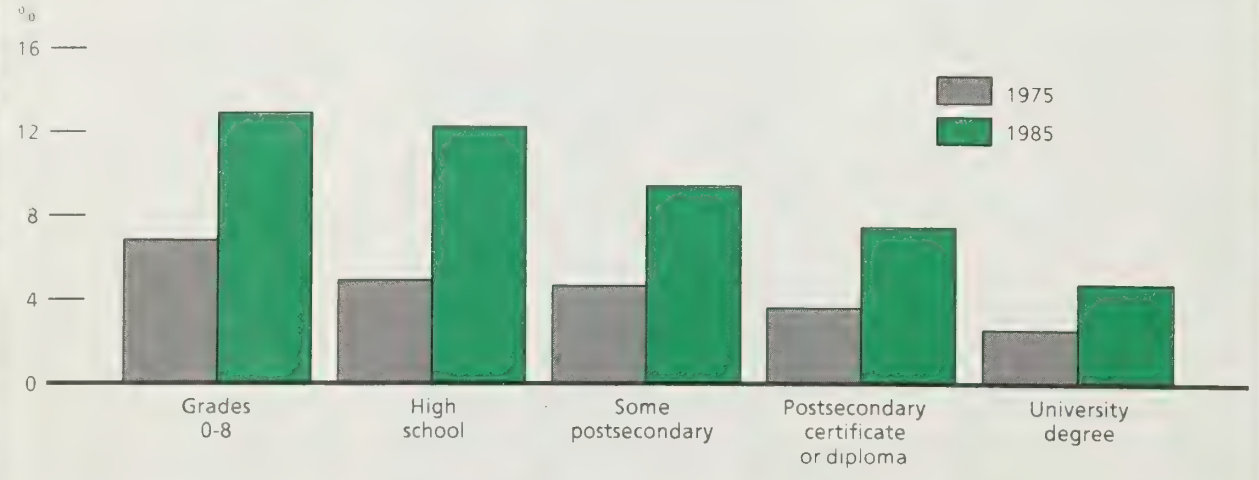
Those with a university education also generate higher earnings than those with lesser qualifications, although the average earnings of women remain well below those of similarly educated men. In 1982, men with a university degree working full-time earned $36,300 compared with $20,000 for men with less than Grade 9 education, while women with a university degree averaged more than double the earnings of women with less than Grade 9. Women with a university education, however, still earned only $1,600 more than men with a high school education in 1982.

Doctoral Degrees Granted in Selected Areas of Study, 1971-1984



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204, *Universities: Enrolment and Degrees;* and Education, Culture and Tourism Division, revised tabulations.

Unemployment Rate by Level of Education, 1975 and 1985



Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages,* and 71-001, *The Labour Force,* December 1985.

A Kaleidoscope of Canada and its People

Travel from Coast-to-coast and Never Leave Your Armchair

Where can you find out how much gold is mined in Canada, see what the Library of Parliament looks like, find out the population of Calgary, and discover how much the government makes and spends? In the **Canada Handbook**, of course!

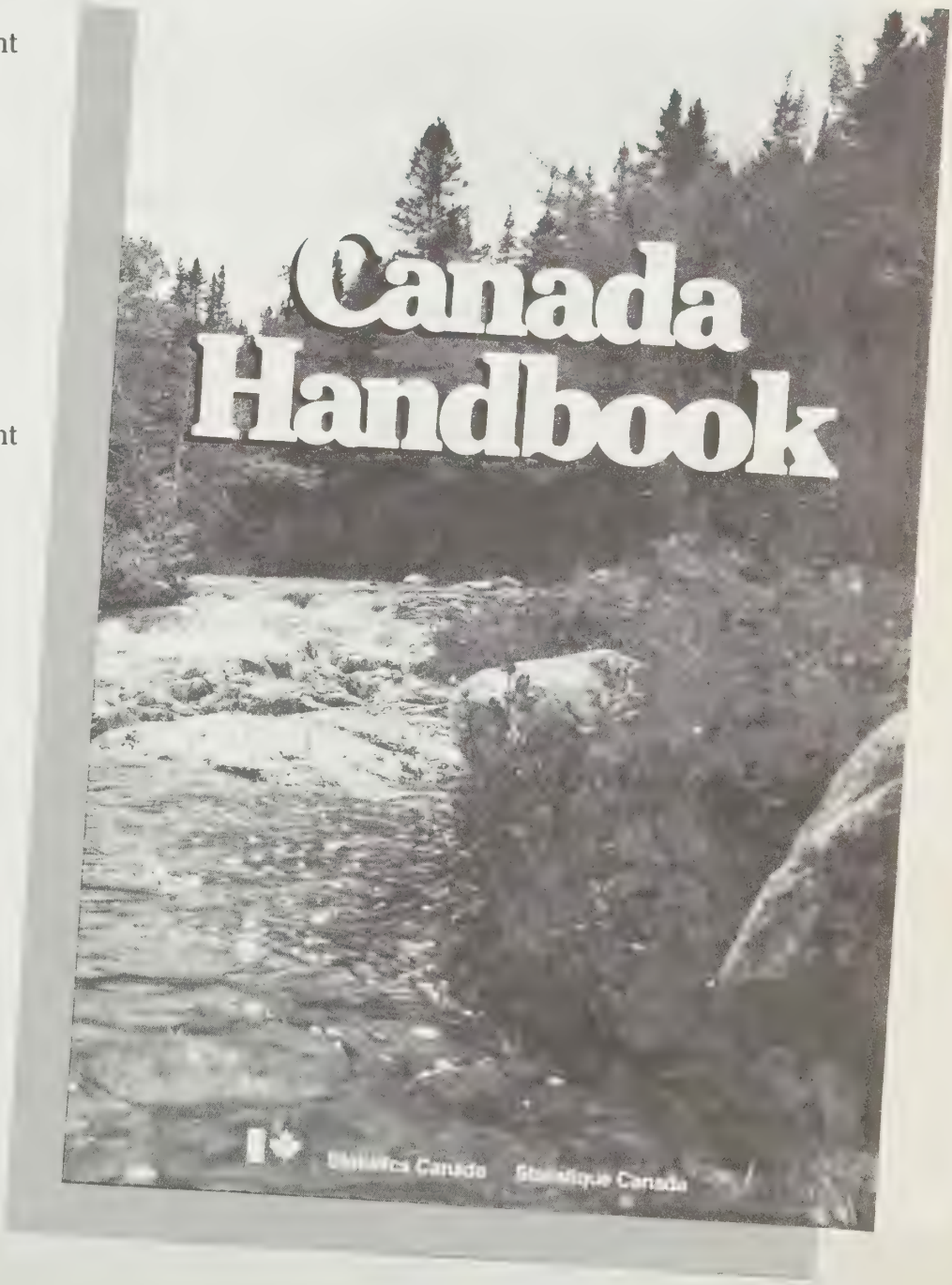
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Canada

FRENCH IMMERSION

by Jo-Anne Parliament

The teaching of French as a second language across Canada takes two forms. Traditionally, most students studying French have taken it as one of their subjects. A growing number of students, however, is enrolled in immersion programmes in which they take some, or all, of their regular courses in the French language.

The number of students enrolled in French immersion more than doubled in the first half of the 1980s from 64,800 in 1980-81 to 140,100 in 1984-85.[1] Total public school enrolment on the other hand, declined by 3% in the same period. As a result, the percentage of all students enrolled in French immersion programmes has grown, but at 4.1% it remained a relatively small proportion of all students in 1984. In 1984-85, 5.6% of eligible elementary students were in French immersion, up from 3.1% in 1980-81. And although just 1.6% of secondary students were in immersion programmes in 1984-85, this figure is three times greater than that recorded in 1980-81.

There is considerable provincial variation in the proportion of students enrolled in French immersion programmes with both the highest and lowest rates found in the Atlantic provinces. The highest percentages of students enrolled in French immersion are in New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island. In 1984-85, 13% of students in New Brunswick, and 9% of those in P.E.I. were enrolled in French immersion. At the other end of the range were Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, where only 0.6% and 1% of school children studied French in an immersion setting. The percentage of students enrolled in French immersion programmes however, has been increasing in all provinces since 1980-81.

In 1984-85, 1,078 of the 11,331, or 9.5% of public schools across Canada (outside of Quebec) offered French immersion. And while the number of schools offering French immersion is increasing, the overall number of public schools is decreasing. In 1983-84, for example, there were 958 public schools offering immersion, and 11,439 public schools overall. That year, French immersion was offered at 8.4% of public schools.

P.E.I. and New Brunswick had the largest proportions of their schools which offered French immersion in 1984-85: 27% in P.E.I. and 21% in New Brunswick. Ontario, with 13% of its schools offering French immersion, was the only other province above the national rate (9.5%). On the other hand, just 2% of schools in Nova Scotia had immersion programmes.

School Population Outside Quebec Enrolled in French Immersion Programs, 1980-81 to 1984-85

	Elementary		Secondary		Total	
	Number	Participation Rate	Number	Participation Rate	Number	Participation Rate
		%		%		%
1980-81	59,171	3.1	5,590	0.5	64,761	2.1
1981-82	71,095	3.7	6,675	0.6	77,770	2.5
1982-83	78,177	4.1	11,268	1.0	89,445	2.9
1983-84*	100,607	4.8	17,169	1.2	117,776	3.4
1984-85	117,900	5.6	22,211	1.6	140,111	4.1

* Alberta included for the first time in 1983-84.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-257, *Minority and Second Language Education, Elementary and Secondary Levels.*

Percentage of Public Schools Offering French Immersion and Percentage of Students in French Immersion, by Province, 1984-85

	% of all public schools offering French immersion	% of students in French immersion
Prince Edward Island	27.1	8.8
New Brunswick	21.1	13.3
Ontario	13.0	4.6
Manitoba	8.7	5.7
Alberta	6.8	3.8
British Columbia	6.5	2.6
Saskatchewan	4.4	2.5
Newfoundland	2.6	1.0
Nova Scotia	2.1	0.6
CANADA	9.5	4.1

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-257, *Minority and Second Language Education, Elementary and Secondary Levels.*



IMMIGRATION

by Mary Anne Burke

Canada is a land of immigrants. Even its first inhabitants, the aboriginal people, are thought to have migrated from Asia across the Bering Sea. Over the years, immigrants to Canada have varied in numbers, by country of origin, in occupation, and by reason for coming. Each stream has contributed, in its own way, to the social and economic growth and development of Canada.

Early Canadian economic life centered around the fishing, logging, farming and fur-trading activities of the first European immigrants from France and

England. In the aftermath of the American Revolution, immigrants from the United States, including many British Empire Loyalists, built a thriving farm economy in Upper Canada. During the 18th century, skilled craftsmen, primarily from England and Scotland, contributed to the economic activity in Upper Canada, and helped push the Canadian frontiers further westward. During the 19th century, Irish and Chinese immigrants dug canals and built railways, laying the transportion infrastructure essential for subsequent agricultural and industrial development in the 20th century. The great western breadbasket was settled in the early 20th century by streams of immigrants from Europe. Italian immigrants supplied a large part of the labour required for the building of two new transcontinental railways around the turn of the century, and for the construction industry in the 1950s. Canadian industrial development following the two world wars depended upon the labour pool supplied by immigrant labourers, skilled workers and tradesmen from all over Europe. In recent years, immigrants have made major contributions to the development of high technology industries in Canada.

In the coming years, immigration may be expected to play an influential role in the development of Canadian society in that it will likely become the dominant factor influencing the size of the Canadian population in the next century. Until now, natural increase (the surplus of births over deaths) has been the most important component of population growth in Canada, accounting for 75% of population growth from 1945 to 1984. In 1984, it accounted for 83% of growth. However, as fewer births (due to low fertility rates and the passing of the baby boom cohort through the prime child-bearing years) and more deaths (due to the aging of the population) occur, Statistics Canada projects that the rate of natural increase will begin to decrease, resulting in an absolute decline in the Canadian population just after the turn of the century.

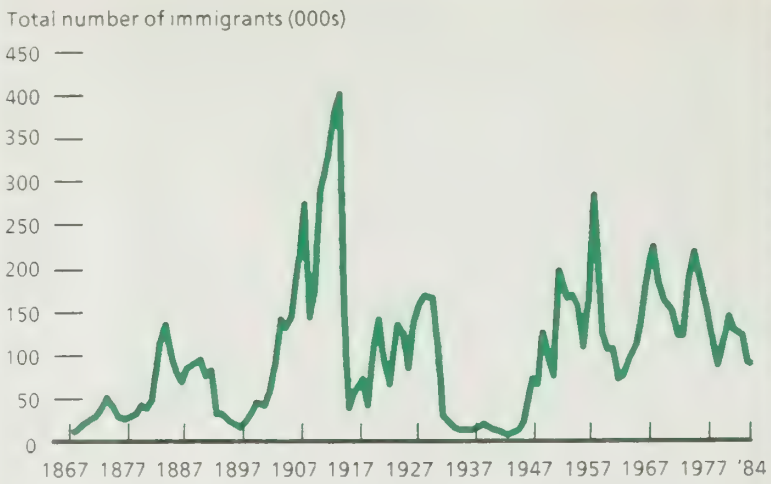
Immigration Levels

Throughout Canadian history, immigration levels have fluctuated widely from year to year, in response to changing immigration policy. The highest one-year immigration total since Confederation was 400,870 in 1913; while the lowest total, excluding the war years, was just under 12,000 in 1935.

Levels of immigration since the recession in the early part of this decade have been low by recent historical standards. In 1983, and again in 1984, immigration to Canada was less than 90,000 per year. In comparison, in the period 1980-1982, there was an annual average of 149,000 immigrants to Canada and during the 1970s, an average of 144,500 people per year immigrated to Canada. In fact, with the exception of 1978, the immigration totals of 89,157 in 1983 and 88,239 in 1984 were the lowest annual figures for Canada since the early 1960s.

Proposed immigration levels suggest a moderate, controlled increase in immigration in the next few years. Levels were set at 85,000 to 90,000 immigrants in 1985; 105,000 to 115,000 in 1986; and 115,000 to 125,000 in 1987. These levels, however, do not guarantee that immigration will reach these totals. For example, the actual number of immigrants to enter Canada from 1981 to 1984 fell short of the lowest levels set by the Department of Employment and Immigration by 28,000 immigrants. As well, even these increased immigration levels are well below the estimated 175,000 immigrants per year which will be required to keep the population from falling early in the next century, should fertility rates not increase. If the fertility rate drops below the present level of 1.6, much larger increases in immigration would be required to keep the population from declining in the future. If any population growth after the first decade of the next century is considered desirable it would likely necessitate massive increases in immigration.

Immigration to Canada, 1867-1984



Source : Employment and Immigration Canada, *Immigration Statistics.*

Immigrant Origins

Immigration to Canada has shifted from primarily European to primarily non-European over the past few years. Data on country of last permanent residence indicate that immigration from Europe declined from almost 65% of total immigration to Canada in 1968, to 24% in 1984. The share of immigration from Asia, for the same time period, rose from 12% to almost 50%. Immigration from the Caribbean and South America has also increased. In 1968, immigration from the Caribbean was negligible, but had increased to 6% in 1984. Immigration from South America increased from 2% to 5% over the same time period.

In 1984, 5 out of 10 major source countries were Asian, up from 3 out of 10 in 1978, and none in 1961. In 1984, the largest percen-

tage of immigrants from any one country was from Vietnam (12%). Hong Kong was the next largest supplier of Canadian immigrants with 9% of the total, followed by the United States (8%) and India and Britain each with 6%.

As well, immigrants are being drawn from a wider range of countries. In 1984, the ten major source countries accounted for 58% of all immigrants compared to 85% in 1961.

Types of Immigration

Immigrants may come to Canada either as sponsored family members, as refugees, or as independent applicants. Since 1967, independent applicants have been rated on a point system based on their age, education, training and occupational skills, the demand for the applicant's occupation in Canada, the existence of pre-arranged employment, and the knowledge of one of Canada's official languages. Pre-arranged employment and the knowledge of French or English are waived if the applicants have relatives in Canada willing to help them relocate and settle. These persons are still considered independent applicants, but they fall into the assisted relative category established in 1967. Also included in the independent category are business immigrants– either self-employed or entrepreneurial applicants –who earn extra points if they are able to invest capital in Canada, creating employment for themselves and others.

Over the past thirty years there have been considerable shifts in the proportion of immigrants belonging to each category of immigration. Family class immigration, for example, made up 55% of total immigration in 1959 but just over 20% in the years 1968-1971. In 1984, however, the proportion of immigrants classified as family had climbed back to 50%. Independent applicants, on the other hand, appear to have declined as a proportion of all immigrants in recent years. In 1967, 67% of immigrants were independent applicants; in 1984, the figure was just 24%. However, changes made to the definition of the independent category must be taken into consideration. Prior to 1972, refugees were included under the independent category. As well, the identification in 1967 of assisted relatives as a special category, reduced the proportion of immigrants classified solely as independent applicants. Still the total in these three categories declined from 73% of all immigrants in 1972 to 50% in 1984.

The distribution of immigrants in the assisted relative and refugee categories has also shifted. The percentage of immigrants in the assisted relative category has dropped substantially, from roughly one-quarter of total immigration in the 1969-1975 period to less than 10% in 1984. The refugee class, on the other hand, accounted for only about 4% of total immigration from 1972 to 1978, but the proportion increased to 25% in 1979 and 28% in 1980. In 1981, it fell back to 12% but increased over the next three years to 17% in 1984.

Province of Destination

Over 90% of immigrants over the last three decades have listed Ontario, Quebec, British Columbia or Alberta as the province in which they intended to settle. Between 1951 and 1981, however, an increasing proportion of immigrants went to Alberta and British Colum-

Report of the Canadian Health and Disability Survey, 1983-1984



An estimated 13% of adult Canadians have some kind of disability. This translates into approximately 2.5 million people. Of these, two-thirds have mobility problems and many use special transportation aids to assist them in everyday life.

Published jointly with the Department of the Secretary of State, the **Report of the Canadian Health and Disability Survey** summarizes the findings of detailed health and disability surveys carried out by Statistics Canada in 1983 and 1984. With its help, researchers working in the social services field can identify who the disabled are, where they live, what types of disabilities they have and what special requirements they may have.

The 142 pages of text including 41 tables are organized according to the following topics:

- demographics (eg. age, urbain or rural residency)
- types of disability
- causes of disability (eg. circulatory, lower limbs)
- use of aids and prostheses
- socio-economic disadvantage
- disabled children.

Report of the Canadian Health and Disability Survey, 1983-1984, Catalogue No. 82-555E (Occasional), is available for $15.00 in Canada ($16.50 other countries) from Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6.
Telephone (613) 993-7276.

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada

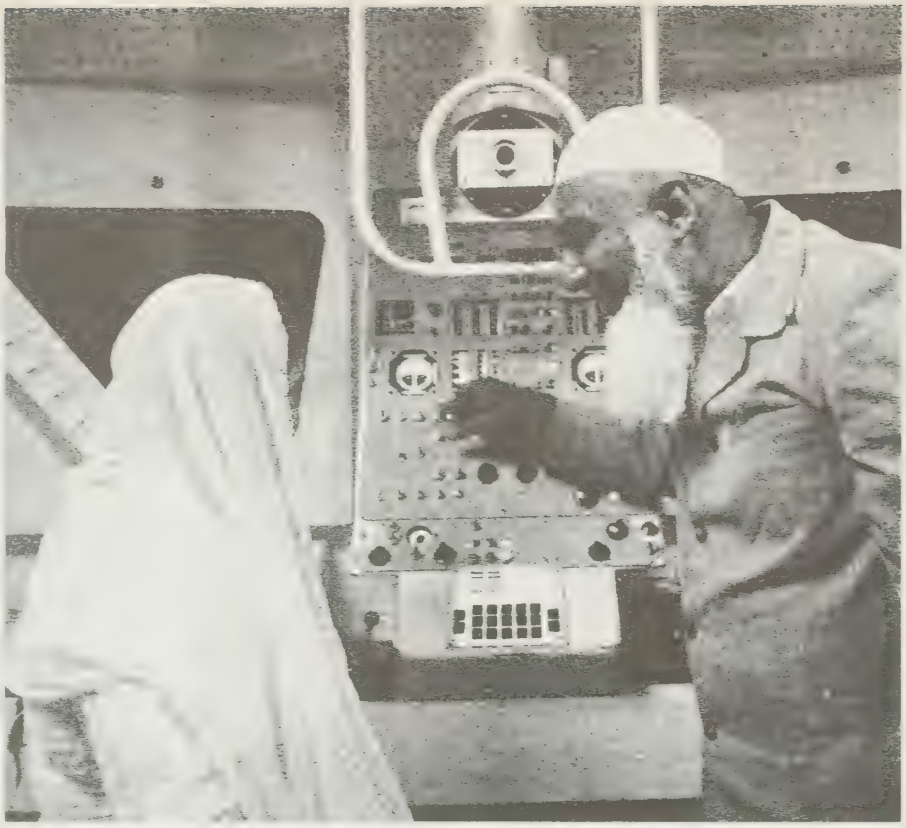
Canada

bia at the expense of Quebec and Ontario. In 1951, 54% of immigrants were destined for Ontario, 24% for Quebec, 7% for British Columbia, and 6% for Alberta. By 1981, these proportions had shifted to 43% for Ontario, 16% for Quebec, 17% for British Columbia, and 15% for Alberta. Data for the years following 1981 indicate that there has been a reversal of this trend, consistent with the reversal in internal migration in Canada since 1981. In 1984, 47% of immigrants intended to settle in Ontario, 17% in Quebec, 15% in British Columbia, and 12% in Alberta.

Immigrant Occupations

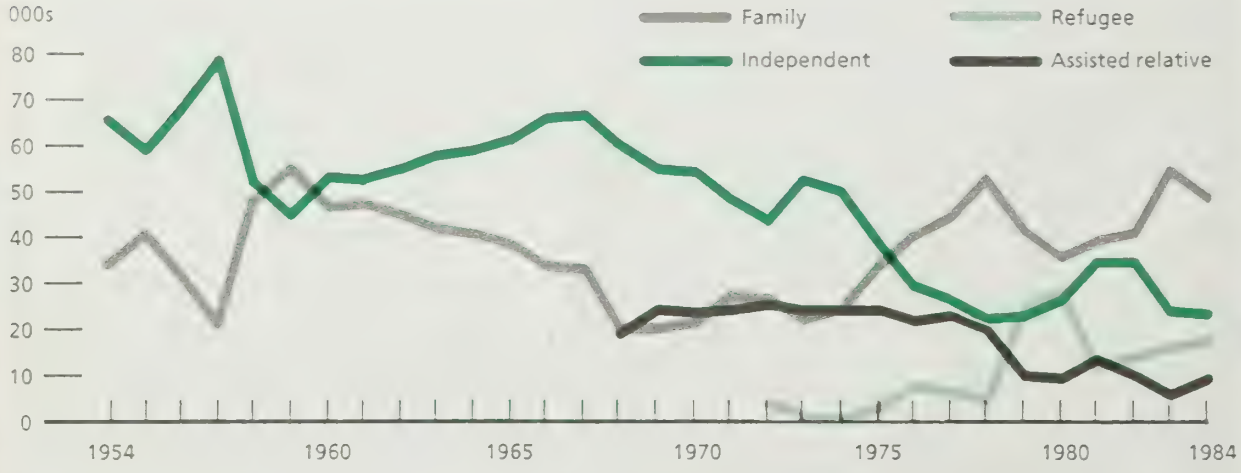
In 1984, 44% of immigrants intended to enter the labour force, a proportion that has remained fairly consistent over that last decade. As well, in 1984, 17% of immigrants were spouses who did not intend to enter the labour force, 8% were children, and 20% were students.

Of the 1984 immigrants who indicated an intention to enter the labour force, two-thirds planned to work in either administrative and professional (20%), service (26%), or manufacturing occupations (20%). This represented a shift from 1978 when 84% of immigrants destined for the labour force belonged to these categories: 29% in administrative and professional, 30% in service and 25% in manufacturing occupations.



While there has been a small increase, from 6% in 1978 to 9% in 1984, in the proportion of immigrants engaged in primary industries (farming, fishing, hunting, trapping, forestry, mining and quarrying) and operational occupations (transportation and utilities equipment handling), the largest increase has been in the proportion of immigrants destined for unclassified occupations. This proportion has increased from 11% in 1978 to 26% in 1984. The major part of the increase in this category has been among immigrant workers with unspecified occupations entering the labour force for the first time. These

Immigrants by Admission Category, 1954-1984



Source : Employment and Immigration Canada, *Immigration Statistics.*

The Ten Major Source Countries of Immigration to Canada, 1961, 1978 and 1984

1961	%	1978	%	1984	%
Italy	20.4	Britain	13.7	Vietnam	12.4
Britain	18.5	U.S.A.	11.5	Hong Kong	8.7
U.S.A.	16.1	India	5.9	U.S.A.	7.8
Germany	8.6	Hong Kong	5.5	India	6.2
Greece	5.4	Philippines	5.1	Britain	5.8
Portugal	4.2	Jamaica	4.5	Poland	5.1
Poland	3.8	Portugal	3.6	Philippines	4.2
Yugoslavia	3.2	Italy	3.4	El Salvador	2.9
Netherlands	2.7	Guyana	2.6	Jamaica	2.8
France	2.4	France	2.0	China	2.5
Total ten major countries	85.3	Total ten major countries	57.8	Total ten major countries	58.4
Other countries	14.7	Other countries	42.2	Other countries	41.6
Total	100.0	Total	100.0	Total	100.0

Source: Employment and Immigration Canada, *Immigration Statistics*.

increased from 11% to 22% of immigrants destined for the labour force from 1978 to 1984. As well, over the same years, immigrants intending to work in unclassified labourer jobs increased from 0.01% to 3% of immigrants destined for the labour force.

Immigration, in the past has made major contributions to the development of Canadian society. Newcomers to this country have helped fuel economic growth and have contributed greatly to the richness and diversity of Canadian society. Continued demographic and economic growth for Canada may well be dependent on immigration in the future. Decisions made today concerning immigration will affect the shape, size and texture of the Canadian society of the future.

KEEPING TRACK

Average family income (in constant 1984 dollars) was $35,800 in 1984; this, however, represents a decline of almost $2,200 per family since 1980.

Wives' contribution to family income (in husband-wife families) increased to 25.1% in 1984 from 20.1% in 1979.

Population Projections for Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1984-2006



This report describes recent, wide-ranging demographic developments, and the issues which they pose to present and future generations. What are the long-term implications of declines in the size of our population; of pronounced increases in the number and proportion of elderly Canadians? The report also projects the size of future consumer markets and annual population changes: births, deaths and net migration.

An invaluable publication for business planners, policy makers, the media, social scientists and members of the public interested in the future of Canada's population.

Population Projections for Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1984-2006, Catalogue No. 91-520 (Occasional), is available for $40.00 in Canada ($50.00 other countries) from Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6.
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THE LABOUR FORCE PAR

Adapted from "The Labour Force Participation of Canada's Immigrants" by Nancy McLaughlin; published in ***The Labour Force****, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001, September, 1985.*

One of the most important questions regarding immigration is how well new arrivals fit into the Canadian labour market. In general, the overall labour force participation rate of persons born outside Canada is roughly similar to that of the Canadian-born population. There are, however, several differences in the labour force composition of immigrants compared with that of the population native to Canada. In particular, the difference between the labour force participation rates of immigrants and non-immigrants is greater among women than among men. In addition, there is considerable variation in the labour force participation rates of particular age groups within the immigrant and Canadian-born populations. Also, the labour force activity of immigrants varies depending on their period of immigration as well as their country of origin.

The comparison of overall participation rates for immigrant and non-immigrant populations, however, is potentially misleading. Immigrants differ from the Canadian-born population in a number of characteristics such as age, education, marital status and the number and age of children, all of which effect labour force participation. It is possible that labour force differences due to these factors may be erroneously attributed to, for example, cultural differences or problems of assimilation into Canadian society. To provide a more accurate picture of the labour force participation of immigrants, differences in labour force activity due to differing age structures, likely the most significant of these characteristics, have been taken into account. Age-adjusted labour force participation rates of immigrants were estimated by calculating what their participation rate would have been if the immigrant population had the same age distribution as the Canadian-born population. These age-adjusted participation rates are presented along with the actual labour force participation rates of immigrants where age structure differences have a major impact.

Overall Labour Force Participation Rates

As of June 1981, the labour force participation rate of immigrant men was almost the same as that for Canadian-born men – 77.9% for immigrant men compared with 78.3% for their Canadian-born counterparts. For women, the gap was slightly larger with 50.6% of immigrant women active in the labour force against 52.1% of Canadian-born women.

When age differences between the immigrant and native-born populations were factored out, however, the labour force participation of male immigrants increased to 79.4%–one percentage point higher than that of the native male population. The change in the age-adjusted participation rate for immigrant women is even greater. While the actual participation rate of immigrant women is 1.5 percentage points below that of native-born women, their estimated 1981 labour force participation rate rises to 55.6% – over three percentage points greater than that of Canadian-born women – if their age distribution had been the same as that of Canadian-born women.

Labour Force Participation by Age Group

Labour force participation rates vary considerably for different age groups of immigrants and the Canadian-born. For both men and women, participation rates of immigrants are higher than those of the Canadian-born for those between the ages of 25 and 64 years, but lower for 15-24 year olds and for those 65 years and over. The gap between the labour force participation rates of male immigrants aged 25-64 and their Canadian-born counterparts increases for successive age groups. The difference among men aged 25-34, for example, was very small (0.4 percentage points) with 95.6% of immigrant men in the labour force compared with 95.2% of Canadian-born men. This difference, however, rises to 2.3 percentage points among men aged 35-44, to 4.0 percentage points for those aged 45-54, and to 9.0 percentage points for the 55-64 age group.

On the other hand, a greater proportion of Canadian-born men aged 15-24, and 65 and over participate in the labour force, although the variation is not large – 2.3 percentage points among the younger cohort and 1.6 percentage points in the oldest group.

Among women, the largest difference between the labour force participation rates of immigrants and the native-born was in the 35-44 age category (8.1 percentage points). The

Labour Force Participation Rates of Canadian-born and Immigrant Populations, by Age, 1981

	Men		Women	
	Canadian-born	Immigrants	Canadian-born	Immigrants
	%			
15-24 years	69.9	67.6	61.2	60.6
25-34 years	95.2	95.6	65.1	69.2
35-44 years	94.7	97.0	62.4	70.5
45-54 years	91.3	95.3	54.1	61.9
55-64 years	75.4	84.4	34.3	40.4
65 years and over	17.8	16.2	6.3	5.4
Total	78.3	77.9	52.1	50.6

Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, unpublished data.

CIPATION OF IMMIGRANTS

difference declines for each of the two older groups: to 7.8 percentage points among those 45-54, and 6.1 for those aged 55-64. And while there was very little difference in the labour force participation rates of men aged 25-34, for women the difference was over 4 percentage points – 69.2% for immigrant women in this age group compared with 65.1% for Canadian-born women.

Labour Force Participation by Period of Immigration

Considerable variation is observed when the participation rates of immigrants are examined for the period of immigration. The general trend is for participation rates of men and women to be higher, the longer immigrants have been in Canada, with the exception of those who arrived before 1961.

The labour force participation rate of immigrants increases most rapidly during their first 2-3 years in Canada. For example, the 1981 labour force participation rate of men arriving that year was 63.4%, while the figure jumped over 12 percentage points to 76.5% for men who arrived in 1980, and it increased a further 4.7 percentage points (to 81.2%) for those who came in 1979.

The relatively low participation rate of those who arrived in Canada before 1961 is explained by the fact that many of these immigrants are older. In 1981, 32% of pre-1961 immigrants were 65 and over compared with 5% of later immigrants and 10% of the total Canadian population. In fact, when the labour force participation rate of pre-1961 immigrants is adjusted to estimate what the rate would be if this group had the same age distribution as the overall Canadian-born population, the participation rate of men increases from 70.0% to 86.8%, while that of women rises from 39.3% to 60.5%. At the same



Labour Force Participation Rates for the Immigrant Population 15 Years and Over, by Period of Immigration, 1981

	Men		Women	
	Actual	Age-adjusted	Actual	Age-adjusted
		%		
Before 1961	70.0	86.8	39.2	60.5
1961-1965	88.9	83.2	62.8	59.5
1966-1970	87.1	79.2	64.3	58.1
1971-1975	86.8	78.6	64.4	56.9
1976	84.5	78.8	58.7	53.2
1977	82.9	77.8	57.6	52.9
1978	81.4	77.5	54.7	51.5
1979	81.2	77.4	54.7	50.9
1980	76.5	72.9	49.3	45.5
1976-1980	81.1	76.6	54.8	50.5
1981	63.4	60.4	35.1	32.7

Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, unpublished data.

time, the age-adjusted participation rate of all post-1961 immigrant groups declined, with the result that for both men and women, pre-1961 immigrants have the highest age-adjusted participation rates.

Labour Force Participation by Place of Birth

The labour force participation of immigrants also varies considerably by place of birth, although much of the difference is actually accounted for by differences in the age structure of immigrant groups from various origins.

The actual participation rates of men range from a high of 86.2% for those from South Asia to 58.0% for those born in East European nations. The participation rates for women are even more diverse than those of men, ranging from 72.3% for women from the Caribbean to 30.8% for those born in East Europe.

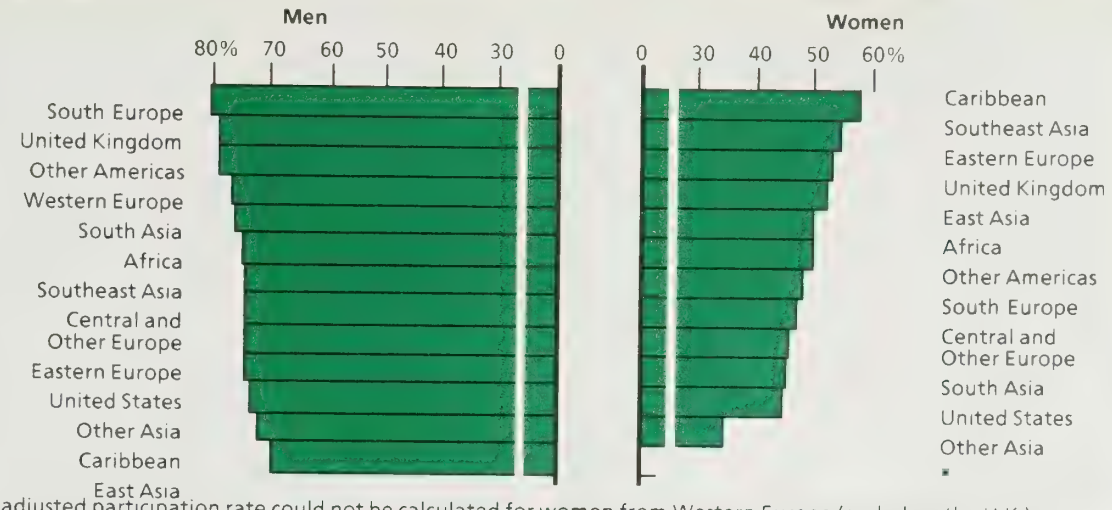
Most of the variation in the participation rates of immigrant men disappears, however, when the figures are adjusted for differences in the age distribution of the various immigrant groups. The range in the adjusted participation rates for men is from a high of 82.1% for immigrants from South Europe to a low of 74.9% for those from East Asia. In addition to immigrant men born in South Europe, those from the United Kingdom, West Europe and Central Europe have high age-adjusted participation rates at 80.5%, 80.4% and 80.4% respectively. Men from the Caribbean, Other Asia, Southeast Asia, East Asia and the United States have age-adjusted participation rates slightly below the rate for Canadian-born men (78.3%).

For women, the highest age-adjusted participation rates are found for those born in the Caribbean (63.5%), followed by immigrants from Southeast Asia, Oceania and Other Regions, and the United Kingdom with rates of 60.1%, 59.0% and 57.9% respectively. Only women born in Other Asia and West Europe have adjusted participation rates below the rate for Canadian-born women (52.1%). The lowest participation rate (44.4%) occurs for women from Other Asia.

When just the most recent immigrants included in this report (those who arrived in Canada between 1976 and 1981) are considered, men from South Europe (81.0%), the United Kingdom (79.2%), and the



1981 Age-adjusted Labour Force Participation Rates of Immigrants, Aged 15 and Over, who Arrived in Canada from 1976-1981, by Place of Birth, 1981



* An adjusted participation rate could not be calculated for women from Western Europe (excluding the U.K.) due to an insufficient number of persons in the labour force.

Source : Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, unpublished data.

Other Americas (79.2%) had the highest age-adjusted labour force participation rates, while those from East Asia (69.7%) and the Caribbean (71.9%) were characterized by the lowest labour force involvement. This picture is somewhat different for women: those from the Caribbean (57.7%) and Southeast Asia (54.5%) had the highest age-adjusted labour force participation rates, while women of Other Asian origins had by far the lowest rate – 34.8%, followed by those from the United States (44.7%).

Immigrants' Countries of Origin

West Europe (excluding U.K.): Eire, Netherlands, Belgium, France

Central Europe: West Germany, East Germany, Switzerland, Austria, Poland, Hungary, Czechoslovakia

South Europe: Portugal, Spain, Italy, Greece, Malta, Yugoslavia

East Europe: U.S.S.R., Romania

Other Europe: Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Andorra, Monaco, Bulgaria, Gibraltar, Vatican City State, San Marino, Albania

South Asia: India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Nepal, Bhutan, Republic of Maldive

Southeast Asia: Burma, Philippines, Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei, Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam, Laos, Kampuchea

East Asia: Hong Kong, Republic of South Korea, Taiwan, Japan, Republic of China, Republic of North Korea, Mongolia

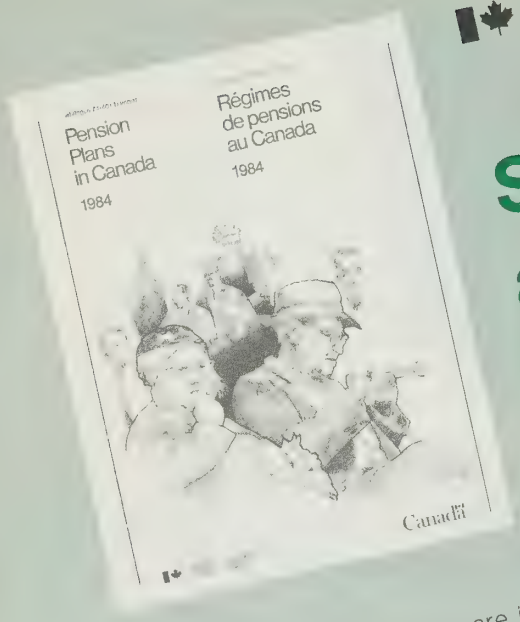
Other Asia: Cyprus, Lebanon, Israel, Turkey, Iran, Syria, Jordan, Kuwait, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Afghanistan, Qatar, Oman, Yemen, Democratic Republic of Yemen, Bahrain

Oceania and Other Regions: Australia, Fiji Islands, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, New Hebrides, Gilbert Islands, Solomon Islands, Tonga, Tuvalu, West Samoa, New Caledonia, Nauru, Pitcairn, Other

KEEPING TRACK

Canada's population increased by less than one percent between 1985 and 1986. The 1986 growth rate was 0.9%, bringing the population to 25.6 million. In earlier years, the slowing growth rate was largely due to the sharp decline in the birth rate, whereas lower immigration has been the main factor in the last five years.

Statistics Canada / Statistique Canada



Study of Pension Plans and Funds Reveals Rapid Change and Growth

Two publications from Statistics Canada will enable you to compare the retirement provisions you may have for your employees with the 17,700 pension arrangements in existence in Canada.

Pension Plans in Canada, 1984, Catalogue No. 74-401

With the aging of Canada's population, the adequacy of the present system of income maintenance is an ever-present concern. **Pension Plans in Canada, 1984** is the seventh in a series of studies on the private pension system. It contains all the relevant details on continuing changes to the 17,700 employer-sponsored pension plans in Canada.

Key characteristics from earlier editions are updated. Within its 96 pages, terms, conditions, trends and developments are explored and highlighted with six charts and 90 tables and text.

Data are included for all occupational pension plans sponsored by employers in both public and private sectors. Such areas as vesting, contribution rates, benefit formulae, eligibility conditions, integration with Canada and Quebec pension plans, retirement ages, pension indexing, contributions paid by employers and employees, number of pensioners and amounts of benefits paid under these plans are studied in historical context. Also included are data on contributors to RRSP's.

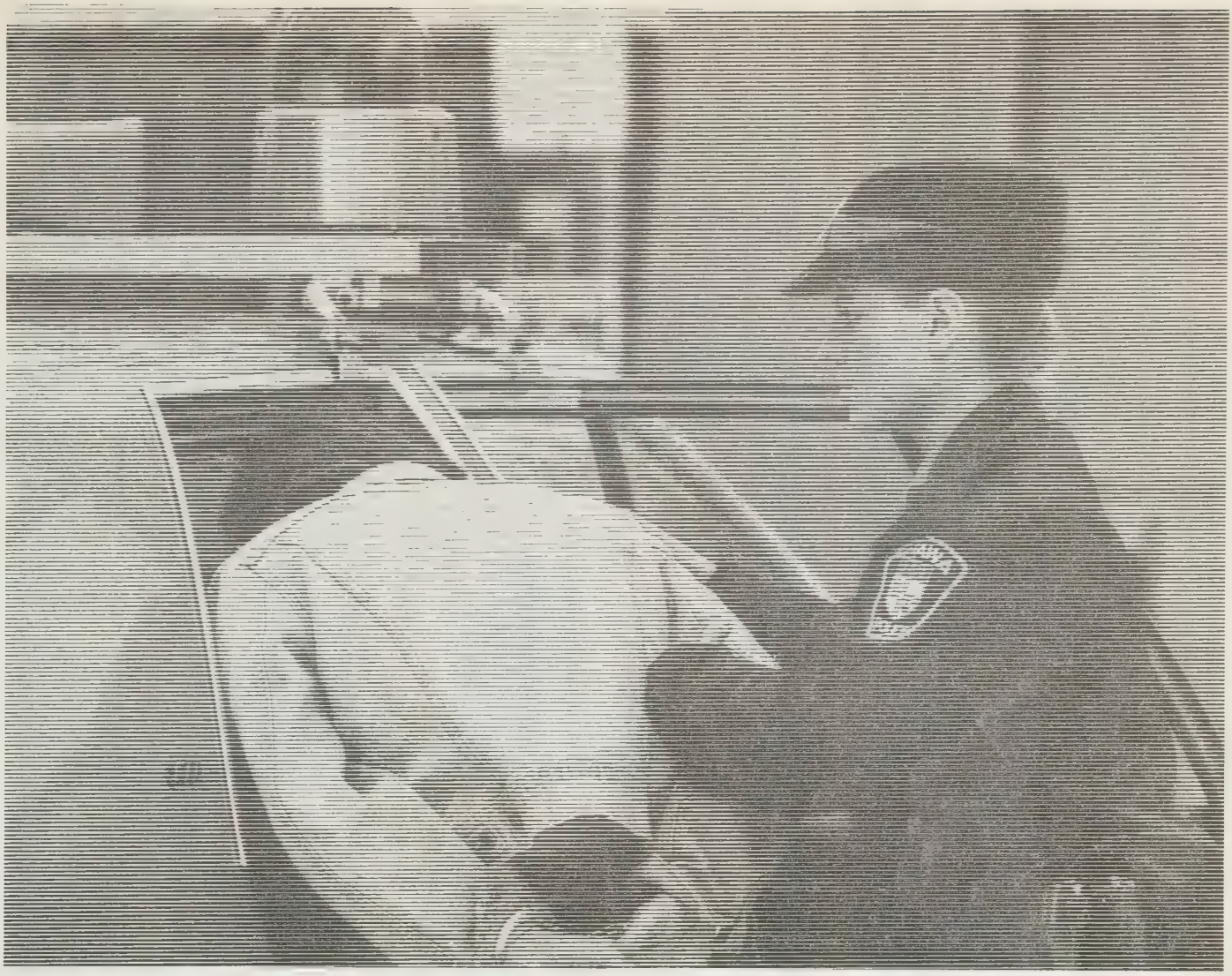
Trusteed Pension Plans, Financial Statistics, 1984, Catalogue No. 74-201

Trusteed Pension Plans, Financial Statistics, 1984 provides information on the asset accumulation of the retirement income programs in Canada with emphasis on the income, expenditure and assets of trusteed pension funds. Detailed analysis in the form of tables, charts and comments is provided on contributions, investment income, pension payments and asset holdings at both book and market values.

With a net cash flow of approximately $11 billion annually, total assets of trusteed pension funds in 1984 amounted to nearly $97 billion at book value and as a single pool of investment capital in Canada, they are surpassed in size only by the aggregate reserves held by the chartered banks.

Pension Plans in Canada, 1984, Catalogue No. 74-401, is available for $50 in Canada ($51 other countries) and Trusteed Pension Plans, Financial Statistics, 1984, Catalogue No. 74-201, is available for $35 in Canada ($36 other countries) from Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6. Telephone (613) 993-7276.

Canada



TRENDS IN THE CRIME RATE IN CANADA, 1970-1985

by Colin Lindsay

Many Canadians perceive the increasing incidence of crime, especially violent crime as one of the country's most pressing social problems. And popular perceptions of how much crime there is, and how effectively the police and courts deal with crime, have a major impact on the course of public debate on issues like capital punishment and court sentencing, and programs such as parole and mandatory supervision. Public awareness of crime in Canada, however, is often fueled more by personal experiences or anecdotal reporting of particularly gruesome or spectacular crimes, than by an understanding of the actual incidence of crime. The following describes the fluctuations of official crime rates in Canada since 1970 and suggests three major trends:

- overall, criminal code offences per 100,000 population increased substantially between 1970 and 1982, but declined in 1983 and 1984; in 1985, they increased slightly.

- property crimes account for the vast majority of criminal code offences, while violent crimes make up only a small proportion; in the years 1983 through 1985, however, the violent crime rate has increased while the rate for property crime has fallen.
- crime rates are much higher in western Canada than in the eastern provinces.

It should be noted that official crime statistics are, at best, imperfect indicators of the amount of illegal activity. What official crime statistics describe are those offences which come to the attention of police across Canada. Many other crimes are either unobserved by victims or police, or when observed are not reported to the police.A survey of criminal victimization carried out in 1981 found that only about 4 in 10 instances of criminal activity were reported to the police by victims. Victims do not report instances of criminal activity to police for a variety of reasons: they may view the incident as too minor to report;they may be unprepared to take the time to pursue the case through police and court channels; they may be intimidated by the legal procedures; they may fear reprisals from offenders; or they may not want to prosecute offenders who are friends,relatives or acquaintances. In addition, many other crimes when reported to police are handled informally and are never actually recorded. As well, the official crime count is understated to some degree, because in incidents involving more than one offence, only the "most serious offence" is recorded.

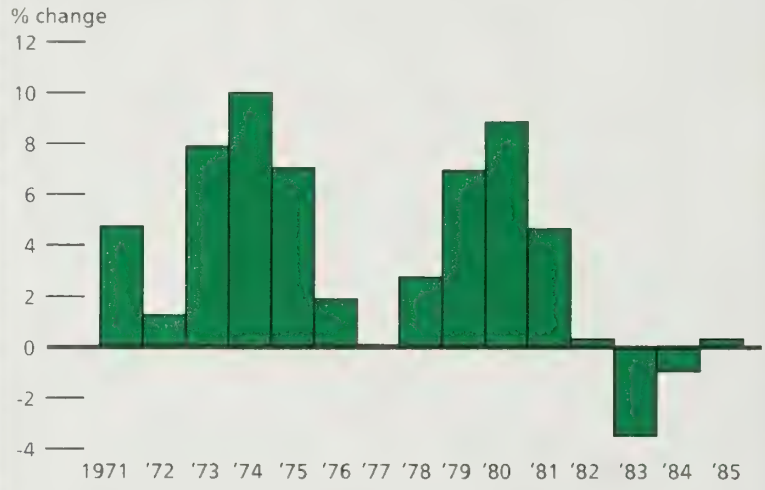
Crime Rates

In 1985, Canadian police forces recorded over 2.2 million criminal code offences, more than one million more than were recorded in 1970. In this period, the number of criminal code offences per 100,000 population increased by 65%, from 5,212 per 100,000 persons in 1970 to 8,581 in 1985.

The growth in the criminal code offence rate, however, was not consistent over this time period. The years 1973 through 1975, and 1979 and 1980 were characterized by increases of over 7% per year in the number of criminal code offences per 100,000 population. This includes an increase of 10% in 1974. There were moderate increases of 5% in 1981 and 4% in 1971, however, in the other years between 1971 and 1982, increases in the criminal code offence rate averaged just over 1% per year.

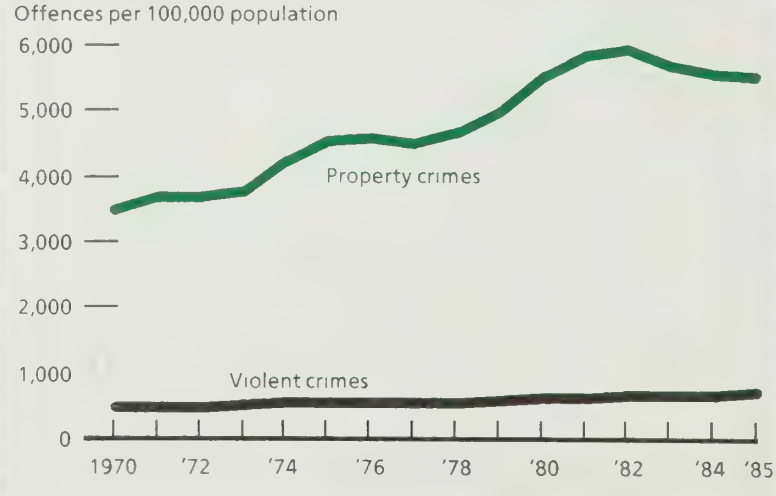
In 1983, and again in 1984, criminal code offences in Canada declined. The criminal code offence rate fell by 3.5% in 1983 and by 1.0% in 1984 as the number of criminal code offences declined from a peak of 8,946 per 100,000 population in 1982 to 8,548 in 1984. The two-year fall in the incidence of criminal code offences ended in 1985. The number of these offences per 100,000 population increased by 0.4% that year to 8,581.

Annual Percentage Change in the Criminal Code Offence Rate, 1971-1985



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205,*Canadian Crime Statistics.*

Violent and Property Crime Rates, 1970-1985



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205, *Canadian Crime Statistics.*

In the last few years, there have been shifts in the growth patterns of violent and property crime. Prior to 1982, property crimes grew at a much quicker rate than did violent offences. Between 1970 and 1981, for example, property crimes per 100,000 population increased by 68% while the violent crime rate grew by just 39%. In the period 1982 through 1985, however, the property crime rate declined by almost 7%, while the incidence of violent crime increased by 9%.

Violent Offences

Despite the growth of violent crime in the 1983-1985 period, this type of offence, which includes murder and manslaughter, attempted murder, sexual assault, assault, and robbery, still makes up a relatively small portion of all crime in Canada. In 1985, police recorded just under 190,000 violent crimes or 749 offences per 100,000 persons, but these made up just 8.7% of all criminal code offences that year. Violent crimes as a percentage of all criminal code offences, however, have been rising since 1981. That year violent crimes accounted for 7.5% of total offences against the criminal code.

Most of the recent growth in violent crime has been accounted for by increases in the less serious types of assault. In 1984, for example, the incidence of the least serious category of sexual assault increased by an estimated 26%, while that of the simplest assault grew by 9% over the 1983 rate. In contrast, the major categories of violent crime have either declined or remained relatively stable in recent years.

The homicide rate, which includes murder, manslaughter and infanticide, increased from 2.2 per 100,000 Canadians in 1970 to 3.1 in 1975, but has been steady around 2.7 since 1978. The rate for attempted murder tripled between 1970 and 1981, but it too has been steady in recent years. Robberies also increased dramatically during the 1970s, more than doubling between 1970 and 1982, but declined by 16% in the 1982-1984 period.

The same pattern also appears to hold for rape. The incidence of rape more than doubled from 5.0 per 100,000 population in 1970 to 10.5 in 1981 but then declined slightly to 10.3 in 1982. Further comparisons are not directly possible because the legal definitions of rape, sexual assault and assault were revised in 1983 and current data are no longer comparable with pre-1983 statistics. Figures for 1984, however, show that there were 4% fewer aggravated sexual assaults, now the most serious sexual offence category, than in 1983.

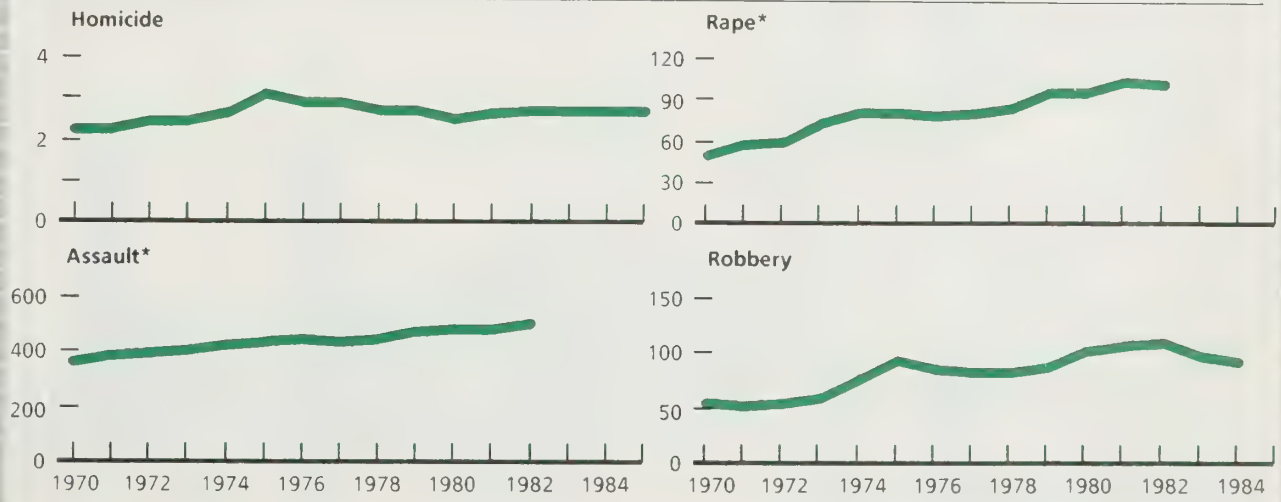
Property Crimes

There have also been changes in the types of property crime being reported to police. There were, for example, almost twice as many thefts over $200 per 100,000 population in 1984 than in 1974, while thefts under $200 remained stable in the same period. Part of this phenomenon is explained simply by inflation, but a major portion is also explained by the growth in thefts over $200 from motor vehicles (presumably much of it stereo equipment) which increased from 107 per 100,000 population in 1974 to 554 in 1984. The increase in thefts from motor vehicles, in fact, represents 32% of the total growth in all types of property crime during this period. Thefts of expensive bicycles also increased sharply between 1974 and 1984, from 16 per 100,000 persons to 127.

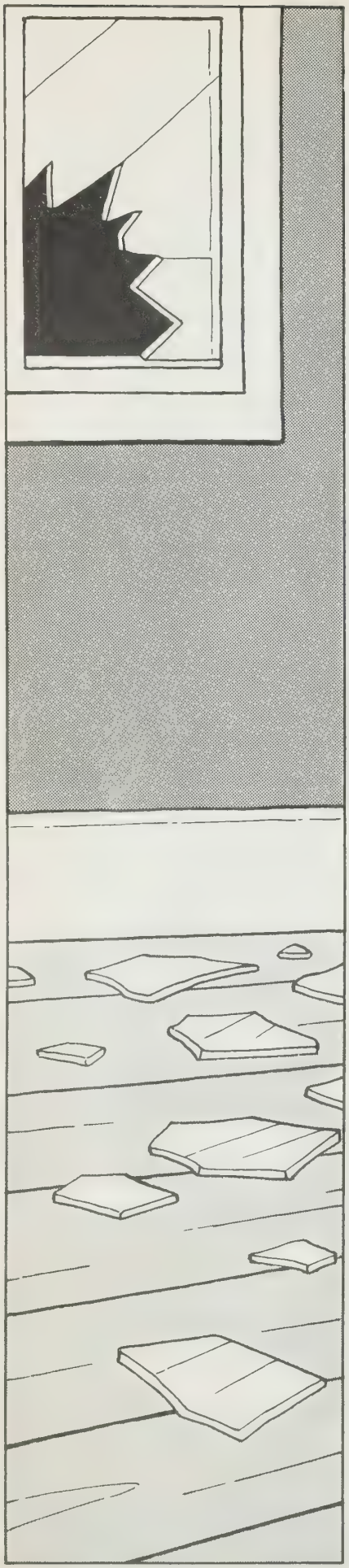
During the 1974-1984 period, the incidence of both fraud, and breaking and entering also increased substantially. Frauds were up 45%, with infractions involving credit cards showing the largest increase. Credit card infractions almost doubled, from 35 per 100,000 population in 1974 to 65 in 1984. Credit card offences are still relatively minor in that they make up less than 1% of all criminal code offences, however, in terms of the actual dollar value, the impact is likely much greater. Note also that fraud, including credit card offences, was one of the few property offence categories which continued to grow in the 1982-1984 period.

The incidence of breaking and entering grew by 37% between 1974 and 1984, with over 80% of the increase being committed against

Selected Violent Crimes per 100,000 Population, 1970-1985



* Comparable figures not available for 1983, 1984 and 1985.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205, *Canadian Crime Statistics.*



Selected Property Crimes, 1974, 1982 and 1984

	Offences per 100,000 population			% change in offences per 100,000 population		
	1974	1982	1984	1974-1982	1982-1984	Overall 1974-1984
Breaking and entering	1,040	1,501	1,421	+44	-5	+37
– residential	523	831	836	+59	+1	+60
– business	373	470	405	+26	-14	+9
Theft over $200	355	1,199	1,212	+238	+1	+241
– from a motor vehicle	107	562	554	+425	-1	+418
– bicycle	16	106	127	+563	+20	+694
Theft under $200	2,045	2,316	2,084	+13	-10	+2
Theft of Motor Vehicle	371	353	305	-5	-14	-18
Fraud	338	481	489	+42	+2	+45
– credit card	35	59	65	+69	+10	+86
– cheques	229	292	297	+28	+2	+30
– other frauds	74	129	127	+74	-2	+72
Total Property Crimes	4,218	5,955	5,607	+41	-6	+33

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205, *Canadian Crime Statistics.*

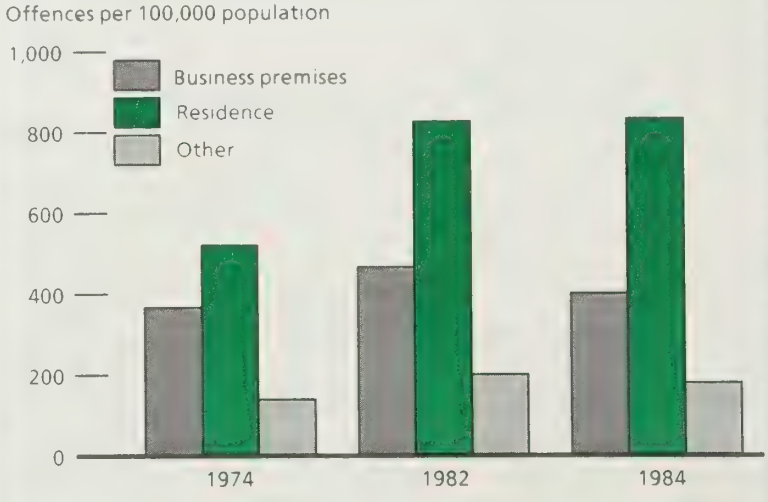
residential property. Thefts of motor vehicles, on the other hand, declined by 18% in the 1974-1984 period, with most of the decline occurring in the last two years.

Provincial Crime Rates

Crime rates in Canada generally increase from east to west across the country. In 1985, for example, British Columbia had by far the greatest incidence of violent crime – 1,135 offences per 100,000 residents of that province. Manitoba had the next highest rate at 998, followed by Alberta with 882. Prince Edward Island had the lowest violent crime rate with just 490 offences per 100,000 persons while Quebec had the second lowest rate at 513.

The east to west crime gradient also shows clearly for property crimes. As with violent crimes, the four western-most provinces had the highest property crime rates in 1985 with British Columbia again leading with 8,427 offences per 100,000 population. The four Atlantic Provinces, on the other hand, had the four lowest property crime rates.

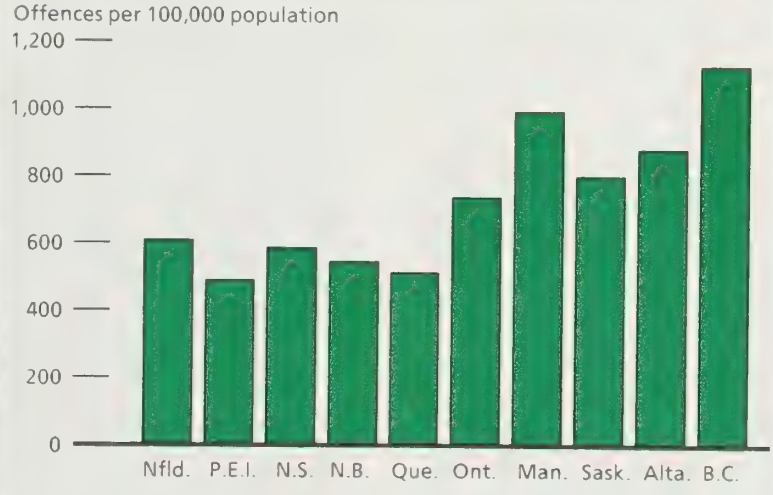
Breaking and Entering Offences by Type, 1974, 1982 and 1984



Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205, *Canadian Crime Statistics.*

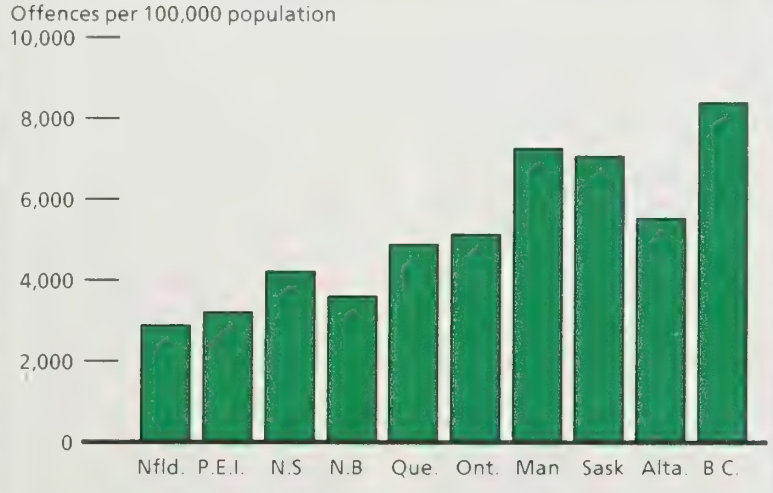
East-west differences in the incidence of crime are further highlighted in the list of highest and lowest provincial rates for the major types of violent and property crime. Western provinces fill the great majority of the three highest positions in all categories, while the three lowest positions are filled almost exclusively by the Atlantic Provinces. Quebec provides the only exception to this trend. On the one hand, Quebec had the highest incidence of robbery of all the provinces and also had relatively high rates of murder, attempted murder and theft of a motor vehicle. On the other hand, Quebec was characterized by low rates of sexual assault and assault. Ontario is the only province not found on either list.

Violent Crime Rates by Province, 1985

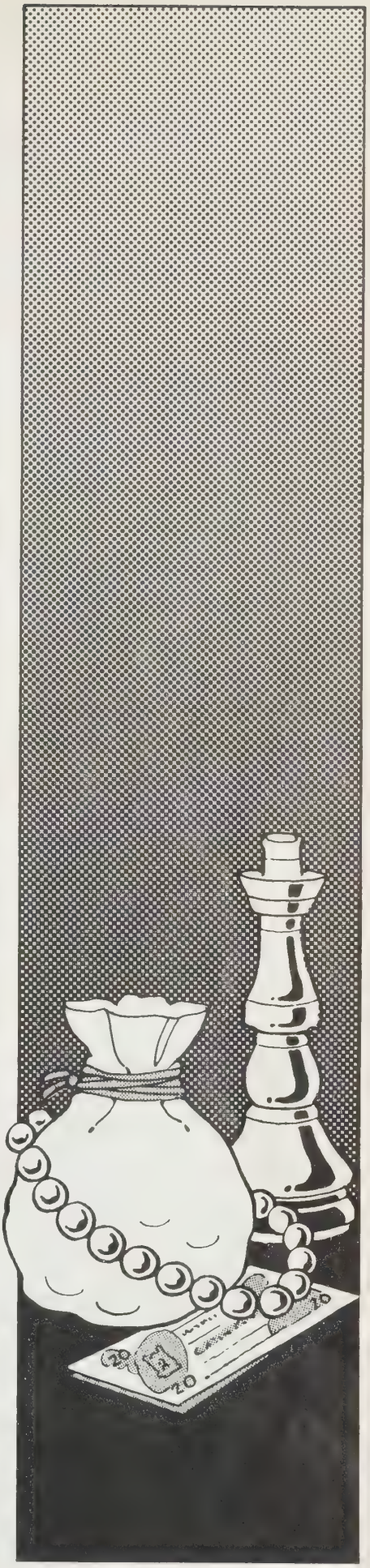


Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205, *Canadian Crime Statistics.*

Property Crime Rates by Province, 1985



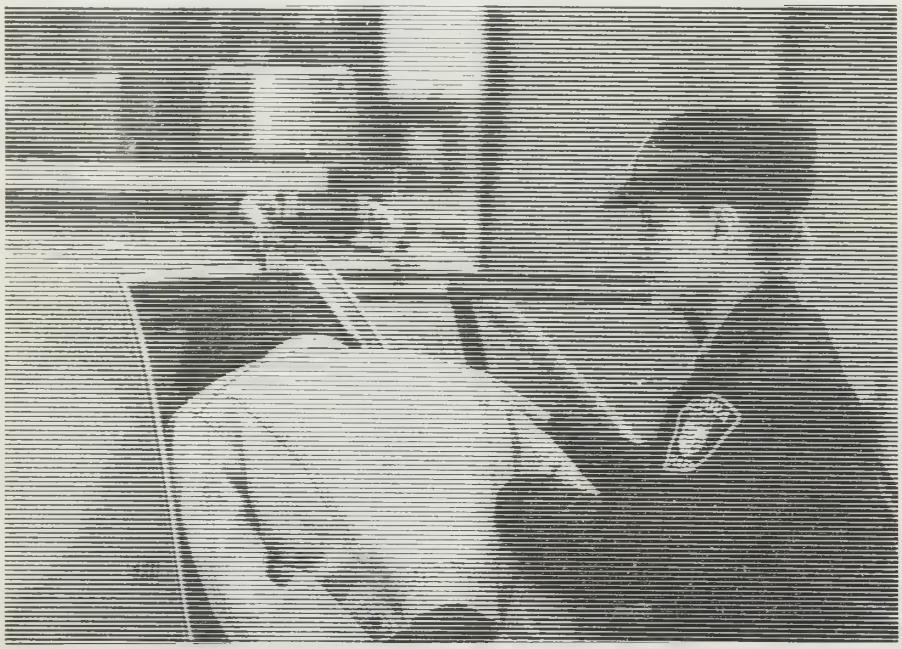
Source : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205, *Canadian Crime Statistics.*



The Three Highest and Lowest Provincial Rates for Selected Criminal Code Offences, 1984

		Highest Rates	Lowest Rates
Homicide	1	Manitoba (4.1)*	P.E.I. (0)
	2	B.C. (3.8)	Newfoundland (1.0)
	3	Quebec (3.0)	Nova Scotia (1.7
Attempted murder	1	Saskatchewan (6.8)	P.E.I. (0)
	2	Manitoba (5.6)	Newfoundland (0.3)
	3	Quebec (5.1)	New Brunswick (0.4)
Sexual assault	1	B.C. (96.9)	New Brunswick (34.3)
	2	Manitoba (79.5)	Quebec (35.4)
	3	Alberta (77.7)	Newfoundland (40.7)
Assault	1	B.C. (854.1)	Quebec (272.9)
	2	Manitoba (724.5)	P.E.I. (419.0)
	3	Saskatchewan (638.4)	Nova Scotia (468.9)
Robbery	1	Quebec(158.8)	P.E.I. (12.0)
	2	B.C. (113.0)	Newfoundland (17.3)
	3	Manitoba (87.9)	New Brunswick (22.6)
Break and enter	1	B.C. (2117.3)	P.E.I. (802.9)
	2	Saskatchewan (1656.9)	Newfoundland (815.9)
	3	Manitoba (1656.5)	Nova Scotia (875.3)
Theft	1	B.C. (5337.5)	New Brunswick (2011.8)
	2	Manitoba (4434.0)	P.E.I. (2013.6)
	3	Saskatchewan (3820.0)	Newfoundland (2070.6)
Theft of motor vehicle	1	B.C. (384.1)	Newfoundland (126.3)
	2	Quebec (358.1)	Nova Scotia (162.8)
	3	Alberta (356.1)	P.E.I. (172.4)
Fraud	1	Saskatchewan (855.4)	New Brunswick (274.8)
	2	Manitoba (645.9)	Newfoundland (281.6)
	3	Alberta (558.2)	P.E.I. (305.7)

* Offences per 100,000 provincial population.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205, *Canadian Crime Statistics.*



KEEPING TRACK

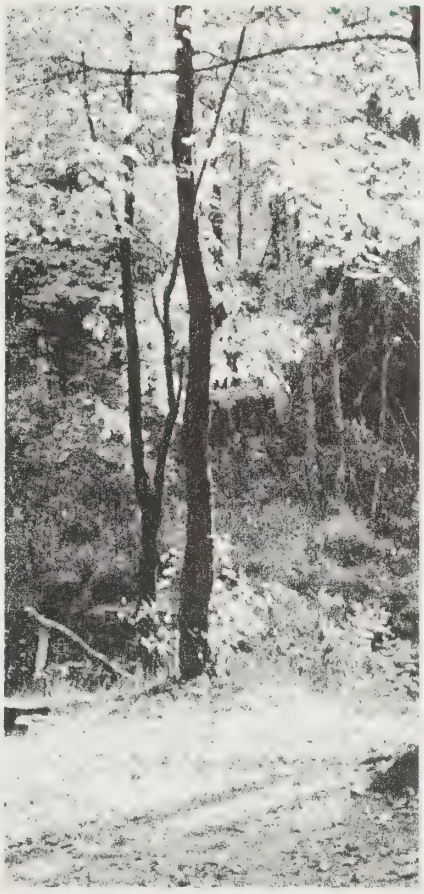
With a growth rate of 1.3%, Ontario and Alberta were the only provinces to have a higher rate of population growth than the national average in 1986. Ontario's relatively high rate of increase was mainly the result of in-migration from other provinces, whereas Alberta's increase reflected a high rate of natural increase (the difference between births and deaths). At the other end of the scale, the population of Newfoundland and New Brunswick grew by just 0.3%.

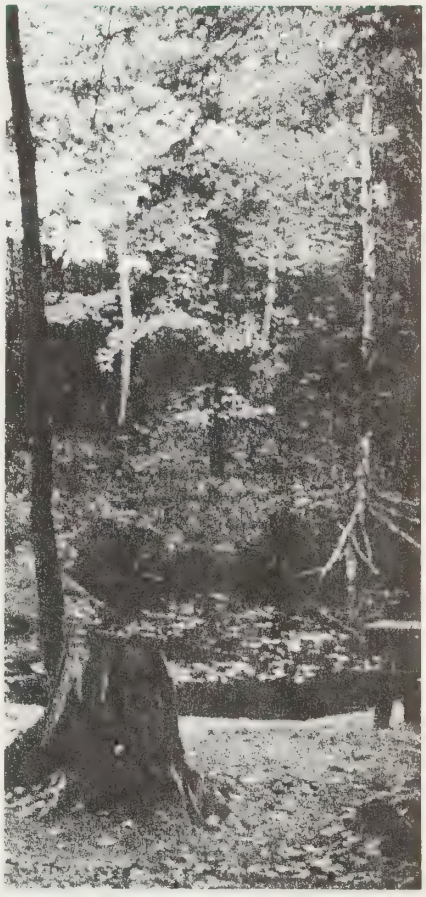
The average total expenditure of families and unattached individuals living in 17 Canadian cities increased 11% between 1982 and 1984, compared with an 8% rise in average family income over the same period.

COMMON-LAW: LIVING TOGETHER AS HUSBAND AND WIFE WITHOUT MARRIAGE

by Craig McKie







Marriage-like relationships, which have a wide variety of names including common-law unions, cohabitation arrangements, and consensual unions, form the basis of family life for a significant number of Canadians. While this type of domestic arrangement has always been a clear alternative to marriage, documentation of its prevalence was not available until the 1980s. This was the case in spite of the fact that most provinces made explicit provisions for these marriage-like unions in family law in the 1970s. The 1981 Census of Canada broke new ground in this area by counting these relationships for the first time. In addition, the monthly Labour Force Survey carried out by Statistics Canada in February 1984 contained a supplementary questionnaire (the Family History Survey) directed to 14,000 respondents which asked for a detailed account of previous and present marital arrangements. This included marriage-like relationships which involved "living together as husband and wife without being legally married". While the passage of the three years between 1981 and 1984 is insufficient to indicate trends, the two sources taken together illuminate this type of relationship as it existed in the early part of the present decade.

In 1981, there were over 350,000 marriage-like unions in Canada,

representing 6% of all husband-wife families; and persons reporting themselves as being a partner in a marriage-like union made up 9% of the unmarried population 15 and over that year.

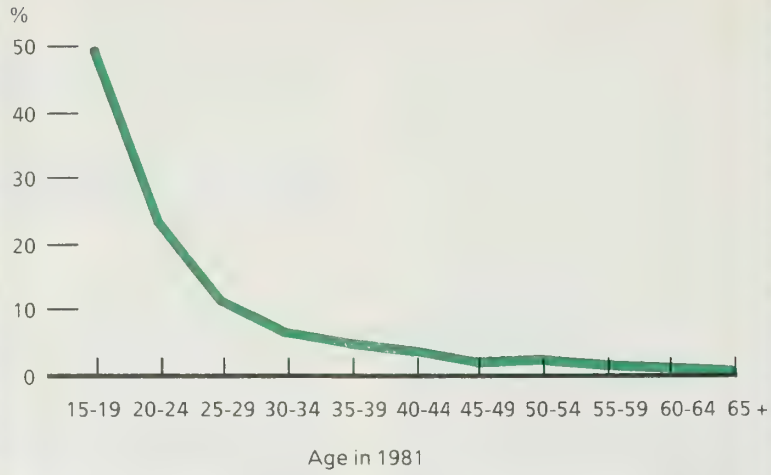
The overall total of marriage-like unions, however, reflects only then-current unions and does not indicate whether a respondent had ever lived in such an arrangement. As such, current unions may understate the significance of the phenomenon since living in a marriage-like relationship does not appear to be a permanent situation for a large proportion of those involved in these partnerships. Many couples subsequently marry; or else they separate without ever marrying, or the unions are dissolved because of the death of one of the partners.

Data from the Family History Survey of 1984 indicated that 16.5% of adult Canadians between the ages of 18 and 65 had at one time or another lived in a marriage-like union. Different age groups, however, form such unions at varying rates. For example, almost 22% of Canadians born between 1960 and 1964 (who were between 20 and 24 years of age at the time of the survey) had been a partner in a marriage-like union. In comparison, fewer than one percent of those born prior to 1940 had been involved in such a relationship when they were in their early twenties.

That living in a marriage-like union is a phenomenon largely characteristic of the young is reinforced by data from the 1981 Census. For example, over half (51%) of all persons living in these unions in 1981 were in their twenties, and over 70% were under the age of 35. At the same time, persons living in a marriage-like union as a percentage of the population in all types of unions for particular age groups was highest among younger age groups. In 1981, 49% of all Canadians aged 15-19 living in any union, 23% of those aged 20-24 and 11% of those 25-29 years, were involved in a common-law arrangement. In contrast this figure was 2% or less among those aged 45 and over.



Persons Living in Common-law Unions as a Percentage of Persons in all Types of Unions, by Age Group, 1981



Source : Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, special tabulations.

Marriage-like unions are, for the most part, a one-time phenomenon in life. Fewer than 2% of adult Canadians had ever been in two or more such relationships, strongly suggesting that such unions are not entered into either frivolously or repeatedly. In fact, they are often a prelude to marriage; for example, 8% of all Canadian men and 7% of women who had ever married reportedly did so with a common-law partner. This percentage is even higher among younger persons – 26% of ever-married men aged 18-29 and 22% of ever-married women in the same age group married their common-law partner.

In addition to providing an estimate of the number of present marriage-like unions, the Family History Survey provided some information on unions which had ended prior to the survey. First unions ended either in marriage (63%), separation (35%), or the death of one of the partners (2%). The fact that almost two-thirds of these first unions resulted in marriage reinforces the notion that the typical first marriage-like union may be a pre-marriage relationship.

Impediments to marriage, such as an existing undissolved marriage or age barriers, may be a formative factor in the creation of some marriage-like unions. If one or other of the partners had previously been married and was waiting for a divorce, such a relationship could bridge the gap until marriage was legally possible. In fact, first unions which led to marriage were the shortest in duration of all types of marriage-like unions. Those that resulted in marriage lasted on average 2.3 years, in contrast to 9.4 years for first unions which ended on the death of a partner, and 3.0 years for first unions which ended in separation. First unions which were ongoing at the time of the survey had lasted an average of 4.3 years.

As is the case with marriage, men tend to be on average about 2 years older than women when they enter their first marriage-like union. The average age of men entering their first marriage-like union was 26.4 years compared with 24.7 years for women.

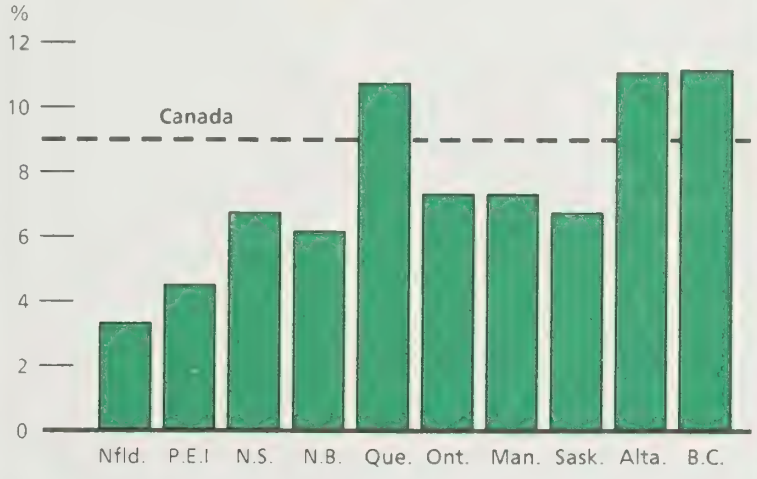
Census data from 1981 showed that marriage-like relationships were unevenly distributed across the country. Those living in a cohabita-

Canadians 18-65 Years of Age Who Had Ever Lived in a Marriage-Like Union as of February, 1984

	Age (at time of survey)						
	18-19 years	20-24 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 ears	55-65 years	Total All Age Groups
Age at First Marriage-like Union	(cumulative percentage by age group)						
12-16 years	1.2	2.1	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.02	0.6
17-19 years	7.7	11.5	6.8	0.9	0.1	0.2	4.3
20-24 years	–	21.9	19.6	3.9	0.8	0.4	10.1
25-29 years	–	–	27.0	7.8	1.8	0.8	13.1
30-34 years	–	–	28.4	11.5	2.8	1.1	14.5
35-39 years	–	–	–	13.6	4.4	1.9	15.3
40-44 years	–	–	–	14.3	6.0	2.5	15.8
45-49 years	–	–	–	–	7.2	3.0	16.1
50-60 years	–	–	–	–	8.2	4.6	16.5

Source: Family History Survey supplement to the Labour Force Survey, February, 1984.

Percentage of the Unmarried Population Living in Common-law Unions, by Province, 1981



Source : Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, special tabulations.

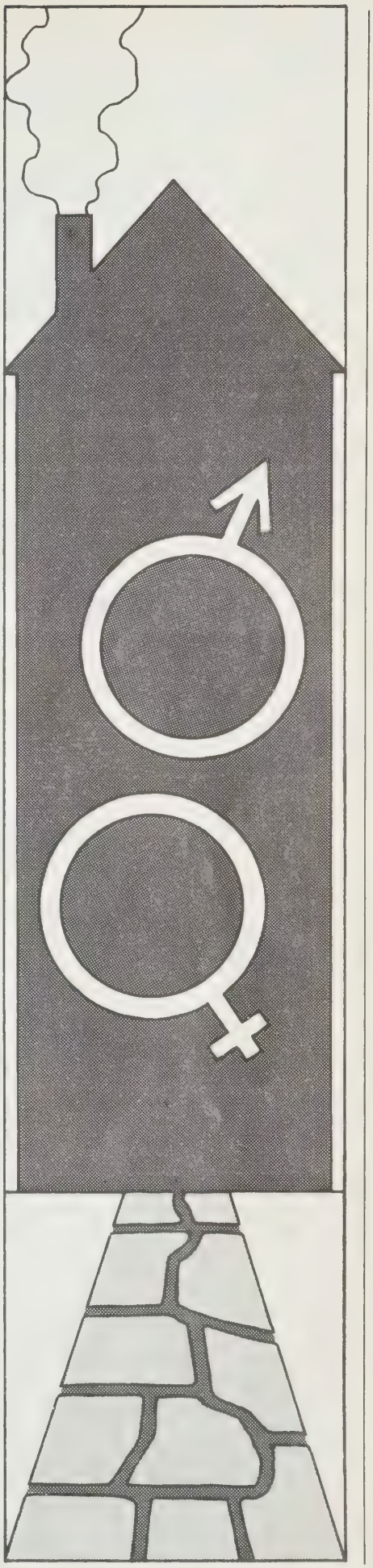
tion arrangement without marriage made up just over 11% of all unmarried persons 15 years of age and older in British Columbia and Alberta, the provinces with the highest proportions. The figure for Quebec was also close to 11%. The provinces with the lowest proportions were Newfoundland (with 3.4%) and Prince Edward Island (4.5%). In the remaining provinces, the proportion of the unmarried population 15 and over living in marriage-like relationships fell in the 6-7% range.

Living together as husband and wife without being married is now an established feature of Canadian domestic life. Although it is still far from the norm, the experience of younger Canadians as recorded in the Family History Survey strongly suggests that unmarried couples living together will be more prominent as time goes by.

Sources:

T.K. Burch, *Family History Survey: Preliminary Findings*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-955.

Pierre Turcotte, "Les Unions libres au Canada: Quelques Mesures et comparaisons", unpublished paper, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada, 1985.



The Value of Household Work in Canada

(Adapted from article by J.L. Swinamer)

Proposals to include the contribution of a woman's household work in the value of a family estate, or to make the value of such work pensionable under universal public pension plans, or even to pay wages to housewives, all require some basic agreement around the extent and worth of the work performed.

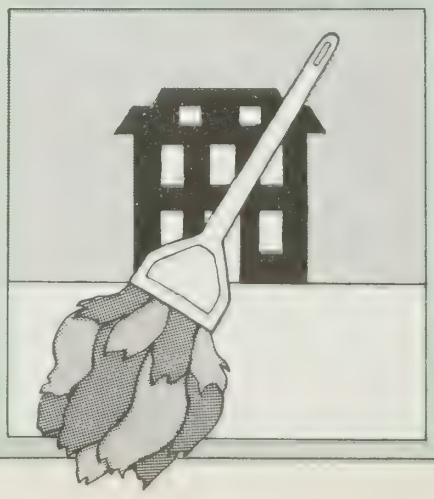
The value of household work in Canada for 1981 was estimated at between $121 billion and $139 billion[1]. To provide a perspective on this form of activity, these estimates represented 35.7% and 41.0% of GNP that year. The 1981 estimates of the value of household work as a percentage of GNP, however, are lower than estimates for 1971. Using the methodology that produced the lower estimate above, the value of household work declined from 40.9% of GNP in 1971 to 35.7% in 1981. This decline is due to the combined effect of increased labour force participation by women and lower time contributions to household work by women in the labour force versus those not in the labour force.

There are significant regional variations subsumed in the national average. The value of household work is higher where more hours are spent at it, which inevitably means in those regions where labour force participation by women is low.

Again using the methodology which produced the lower national estimate, the value of household work in 1981 was calculated at more than half of provincial gross domestic product (GDP) in Newfoundland (55%), Prince Edward Island (66%) and Nova Scotia (50%), and close to half in New Brunswick (47%). At the other extreme, household work was valued at just 25% of provincial GDP in Alberta in 1981.

The estimated value of household work in Canada is consistent with earlier findings in other countries, which generally put the worth of household work around a third of GNP. Though the findings have been arrived at by various methods, and are not included in official estimates of GNP, they are seen as an important and necessary response to social pressure to place a dollar value on the household work done, most of it by women.

Detailed calculation and explanations of the value of household work may be found in a paper by J.L. Swinamer, "The Value of Household Work in Canada, 1981"; in the ***Canadian Statistical Review***, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-003E, Volume 60, No. 3.



[1] These two figures are based on different methods of estimation. The first, which produced the lower estimate of the value of household work, calculated what it would cost to hire different persons to perform household activities such as child care, food preparation, cleaning, clothing care, marketing and household management. The higher estimate was derived by estimating what household workers would have earned had they participated in labour market activities.

KEEPING TRACK

On Census Day 1981, 68.8% (slightly over 2.6 million people) of the Canadian immigrant population had acquired Canadian Citizenship by naturalization. Only 5% of the Canadian population were not Canadian citizens at all.

Sixty per cent of all Canadians families in 1981 had 2 or more wage earners, almost double the 1951 figure of 33%. Of those, 20.6% were below Statistics Canada's low-income cut-offs.

According to RCMP figures, in 1984 Canadians spent $10 billion on drugs (marijuana and cannabis products – heroin, coke, amphetimines, barbituates, etc.), $4.3 billion more than the $5.7 billion Statistics Canada reported was spent on groceries and confectionary items.

Social Indicators

	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
Population								
Canada (000s)	23,517.0	23,747.3	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,631.8	24,885.9	25,127.9	25,358.5
Annual growth rate (%)	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.9
Immigration	82,939	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	80,793P	*
Emigration	63,559	51,060	43,609	44,823	49,869	48,397	47,967P	*
Family								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.9P
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.9	7.9	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.1P
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	699	652	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991
Labour Force								
Total employment (000s)	9,987	10,395	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311
- goods sector (000s)	3,324	3,474	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348
- services sector (000s)	6,662	6,921	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963
Total unemployment (000s)	908	836	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328
Unemployment rate	8.3	7.4	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5
Part-time employment rate	12.1	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5
Women's participation rate	47.9	49.0	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	31.9	32.6	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	*	*
Income								
Average family income - (1982 $)	33,513	33,283	34,152	33,728	32,981	32,836	32,405	*
% of families with low income	-	13.1	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	-	63.3	-	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	*
Education								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,294.0	5,184.7	5,106.3	5,030.2	4,994.0	4,974.7	4,945.9	4,940.2P
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	617.8	623.5	643.4	675.3	722.0	763.9	782.6P	787.8P
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,819	1,803	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,851P	*
Government expenditure on education (1982 $000,000)	22,426.8	22,598.2	22,512.7	23,082.3	22,807.9	22,320.8	21,865.4	*
Health								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	22.3	21.4	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	*
- women	7.3	7.0	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers								
- men	-	38.6	-	36.7	-	34.0	-	*
- women	-	30.1	-	28.9	-	28.3	-	*
Government expenditure on health (1982 $000,000)	18,058.8	18,456.1	19,564.9	20,831.2	21,091.0	22,227.2	22,601.8	*
Justice								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	592	623	648	666	685	692	714	749
- property	4,673	5,013	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560
- homicide	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7
Government								
Expenditures on social programs[1] (1982 $000,000)	90,783.9	91,126.7	95,340.7	97,499.7	103,951.1	106,810.1	102,870.1	*
- as a % of total expenditures	60.4	59.3	57.7	57.3	57.3	59.0	57.8	*
- as a % of GNP	26.1	25.1	25.7	25.9	29.0	29.0	28.1	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,523.9	2,332.9	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	*
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,075.2	2,145.4	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,501.9	1,547.6	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3P
Economic Indicators								
GNP - annual % change	+ 3.6	+ 3.2	+ 1.1	+ 3.3	− 4.4	+ 3.3	+ 5.0	+ 4.5
Annual inflation rate (%)	8.8	9.2	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0
Urban housing starts	178,678	151,717	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408

- Not available; * Not yet available; P Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.
[1] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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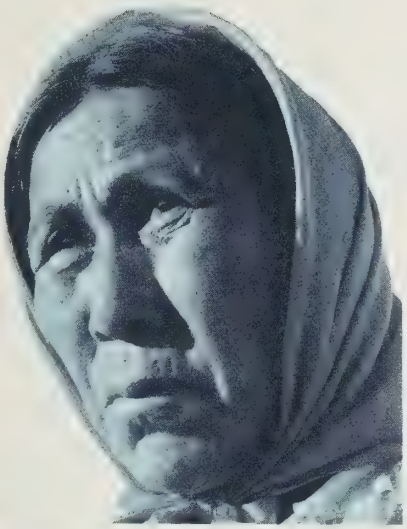
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Canada



SOCIAL TRENDS







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Cover: Design concept for proposed mural for ***First Ministers' Conference on Aboriginal Rights*** by Cecil Youngfox

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THE SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CONDITIONS OF REGISTERED INDIANS

by Andrew J. Siggner[1]

The winds of change are sweeping the Indian population in Canada. Issues such as self-government, funding and reinstatement are central to the push for political and legislative change. Fundamental to an understanding of these issues, however, is an appreciation of the direction and magnitude of the demographic, social and economic change which the Indian community is already experiencing.

Indians referred to in this article are those who are registered under the Indian Act of Canada. There are, however, other native aboriginal groups, such as the Métis, who are generally of mixed Indian and non-Indian ancestry; non-status Indians, who have lost their status under the Indian Act for a variety of reasons; and Inuit, who largely reside in the Northwest Territories and Labrador and along the northern Quebec coast.

Size and Distribution of the Population

The total Indian population of North America, prior to the arrival of Europeans in the sixteenth century, was estimated at about 900,000 people, of whom about 220,000 were in what is now Canada. The introduction of firearms from Europe was one of several factors contributing to a subsequent decline in the Indian population. By the seventeenth century, both intertribal warfare and English-French warfare, into which Indians were drawn as allies of the Europeans, had taken their toll on the Indian population. Also devastating were famines, for example, that of 1879-80 on the Prairies, and epidemic diseases such as smallpox, scarlet fever, tuberculosis, and influenza, against which Indians had no natural immunity. Epidemics of these diseases were numerous and sometimes decimated the populations they struck.

Shortly after Confederation in 1867, the Indian population of what is now Canada was approximately 102,000. Over the next seventy years (to 1941), estimates of the Indian population fluctuated between that level and around 122,000, which represented from 1.1% to 2.5% of the total Canadian population. It is not certain whether this fluctuation was due to actual shifts in the size of the population, for example, as a result of epidemics, or whether it was due to changes in the definition of an Indian, problems in reporting, or some combination of these. Not until 1941 did the Indian population begin to show a pattern of sustained growth, and not until 1966 did the Indian population of Canada again reach the size it had been just prior to European contact.



Registered Indian Population and Indian Lands, by Region

	Atlantic Provinces	Quebec	Ontario	Manitoba	Sask.	Alberta	B.C.	N.W.T.	Yukon	Canada
Total Indian population, 1984[1]	13,590	34,335	77,313	52,049	54,188	43,436	61,730	8,530	3,638	348,809
% of total Indian population, 1984	3.9	9.8	22.2	14.9	15.5	12.5	17.7	2.5	1.0	100.0
% of total provincial/ territorial population, 1984	0.6	0.5	0.9	4.9	5.4	1.9	2.2	17.2	16.5	1.4
% living off reserve, 1984[2]	28.2	14.4	31.9	26.7	34.0	24.7	35.9	7.2	24.5	28.7
Number of Indian bands, 1985	31	39	126	60	68	41	196	14	17	592
% of Indian bands, 1985	5.2	6.6	21.3	10.1	11.5	6.9	33.1	2.4	2.9	100.0
Number of reserves and settlements, 1985	67	33	185	103	142	90	1,610	29	25	2,284
% of reserves and settlements, 1985	2.9	1.4	8.1	4.5	6.2	3.9	70.5	1.3	1.1	100.0

[1] The official count from INAC as of December 31, 1984 is unadjusted for late-reported births and deaths (which would add about 2-3% to the population). Such an adjustment would be unlikely to alter significantly the percentages shown in this table.

[2] Off-reserve includes Indian living off reserves and off Crown land settlements.

Sources: INAC, Program Reference Centre, *Registered Indian Population by Sex and Residence*, and *Schedule of Indian Bands, Reserves and Settlements*.

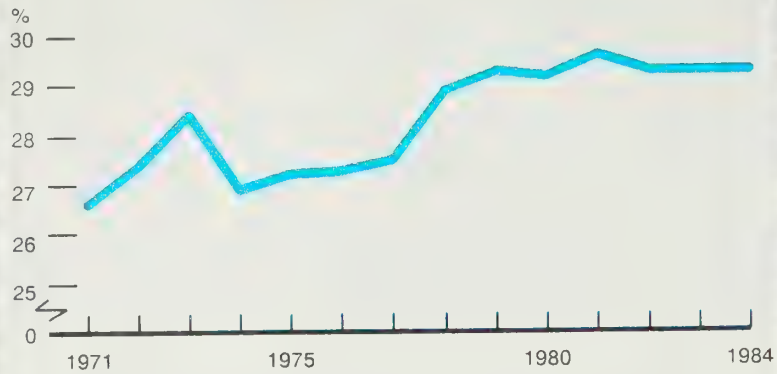
By 1984, the registered Indian population had reached an estimated 349,000, according to the count from the Indian register maintained by the Department of Indian and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC). Indians' share of the total Canadian population amounted to 1.4%. Recent projections (assuming medium growth rates) envisage the registered Indian population growing to over 456,000 persons by 1996, or about 1.7% of the total Canadian population[2].

Indians are most numerous in Ontario and British Columbia. These two provinces accounted for 22% and 18% respectively of the Indian population in Canada in 1981. The Prairie provinces also accounted for a large share of the Canadian Indian population–16% in Saskatchewan, 15% in Manitoba and 13% in Alberta, while Quebec accounted for a further 10%. When the provinces and territories are ranked according to the proportion of the total provincial/ territorial population composed of Indians, a quite different ordering emerges. In 1984, registered Indians constituted a larger share of the population in the Northwest Territories and Yukon Territory (about 17% in each) than they did in any of the ten provinces. In fact, in the Northwest Territories, the total aboriginal population (including Métis, non-status Indians and Inuit) made up the majority of the territorial population. In Manitoba and Saskatchewan, registered Indians constituted about 5% of the provincial population, while in central and eastern Canada, Indians accounted for less than 1% of the provincial populations. Increases in the Indian population as a proportion of the total population are expected to occur in the Northwest Territories and Yukon Territory, and in Saskatchewan and Manitoba. By 1996, registered Indians are expected to constitute 22% of the total population in the two territories, and 7% and 6%, respectively, of that in Saskatchewan and Manitoba. The Indian population as a percentage of the total population in the central and eastern provinces, however, is projected to remain at its current level.

Another important aspect of the distribution of the Indian population is the proportion of Indians living on reserves compared with the proportion living off reserves. Note that unless otherwise specified, the term "Indian reserve" also includes Indian settlements on Crown land, which in most respects are treated as Indian reserves by Indian and Northern Affairs Canada.

The proportion of the Indian population living off reserve climbed from about 16% in the mid-1960s

Proportion of the Registered Indian Population Living Off Reserve[1], 1971-1984



[1] Includes those living on Crown Lands. The decline between 1973 and 1974 is due to a change in the definition of off reserve.

Sources: J. Perrault, L. Paquette and M.V. George, *Population Projections of Registered Indians, 1981-1996*, (Ottawa; INAC, 1985); A.J.Siggner, *An Overview of Demographic, Social and Economic Conditions Among Canada's Registered Indians*, (Ottawa; INAC, 1979).

to 28% by 1973. Then, as urban economic growth slackened in the mid-1970s, the proportion of Indians living off reserve levelled off at about 27%. By 1984, the figure had edged up to 29%. In absolute numbers, the off-reserve population reached almost 100,000 persons in 1984. Still 71% of the Indian population, or about 248,000, were residing on reserves and settlements that year.

What will happen to the size and growth rate of the off-reserve population in the last half of the 1980s will depend on demographic, social, housing, and economic conditions both on and off reserve. An additional factor will be the effect of the 1985 amendments to the Indian Act allowing for the reinstatement to Indian status of as many as 76,000 persons. Most of them are non-status Indian women (and their children) who have been living off reserve. It is not clear how many of those eligible under the new Act will seek reinstatement, and of those, how many will seek residency on reserves or in Indian settlements. However, the amended Indian Act does allow Indian band councils to control band membership and potentially control on-reserve residence.

Two important factors for the economic viability of Indian bands are their size and location. The number of bands with a population of 1,000 or more people increased marginally from 13% of all bands in 1977 to 16% in 1981. However, the proportion of all bands this size is expected to increase to at least 25% before the end of the century, assuming that no new bands are created. As well, by 1996, 64% of all Indians will be members of these larger bands. This figure was just 44% in 1981. However, if the assumption that no new bands are created does not hold, for instance, if small bands amalgamate with each other to form large bands, or if they amalgamate with existing large bands to form even larger bands (both of which may prove necessary for the success of self-government), the aforementioned 25% could prove to be a conservative estimate.

On the other hand, the number of small bands–those with less than 500 persons–is projected to decline from 370, or 64% of all bands in 1981, to 299, or 52% of the total by 1996. The smaller bands will see their share of the total population of Indian individuals decline from 22% in 1981 to 15% by 1996 (again, assuming no change in the number of bands).

These national projections mask considerable regional variation. For instance, local economies of scale will be particularly difficult to realize in British Columbia and the Territories, where over one-third of the bands, compared to around 5% of the bands in the Prairies provinces, are projected to still have fewer than 500 persons in 1996.



Membership Size of Indian Bands, 1981 and 1996

	Number of bands		Percentage of bands		Percentage of population	
	1981	1996	1981	1996	1981	1996
			%		%	
Band membership size:						
Less than 500	370	299	64.0	51.7	21.6	15.3
500-999	116	136	20.1	23.5	34.4	20.9
1,000-2,999	84	126	14.5	21.8	33.8	44.6
3,000 and over	8	17	1.4	2.9	10.2	19.2
Total	578	578	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: J. Perreault, L. Paquette, and M.V. George, *Population Projections of Registered Indians, 1981 to 1996* (Ottawa: INAC, 1985).

Trends in Fertility and Mortality

Since the turn of the century, the Indian population has gone through three stages in terms of trends in births and deaths. The first stage was characterized by high fertility and high mortality rates during the first half of the 1900s. The second stage, which took place during the 1950s and 1960s, saw continued high fertility, however, mortality dropped off rapidly due to advances in sanitation and medicine. The third stage, which took place in the 1970s, saw fertility rates decline as the effects of urbanization and modernization were felt, while mortality rates remained low.

In the latter half of the 1970s, the rate of decline of fertility for Indians, as measured by the total fertility rate[3], slowed. This may have been partially due to the entry into child-bearing age of the Indian "baby boom" generation born in the 1960s. However, the gap between the Indian total fertility rate and that of the overall population closed dramatically between 1969 and 1981. Nevertheless, in 1981 the Indian total fertility, at 3.15 births per woman, remained almost twice as high as the Canadian rate of 1.70 births per woman.

Indian death rates have dropped significantly in recent years, but both general indicators and some "cause-specific" measures for Indians still compare unfavourably with those of the overall Canadian population. Indeed, as a consequence of differences in health, social and environmental conditions, life expectancy for Indians is still nine or ten years less on average than that of the overall population.

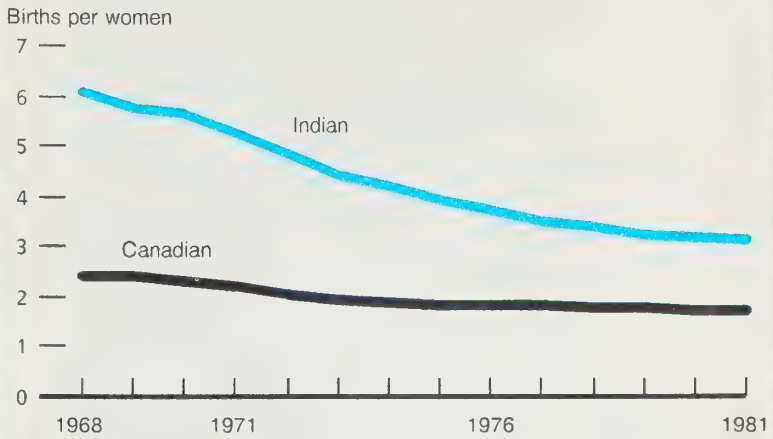
Indian male life expectancy at birth reached 62 years in 1981, after hovering around 60 years for the previous two decades. This is compared to a life expectancy of 72 years in the total Canadian male population in 1981. Indian females, on the other hand, made greater gains as their life expectancy rose from 63.5 years in 1960 to nearly 69 years by 1981. The life expectancy at birth for the overall Canadian female population in 1981 was 78 years.

Infant mortality refers to deaths of babies before the age of one and is internationally used as an indicator of the overall standard of living of a population. Throughout the 1970s and into the 1980s, Indian infant mortality rates continued a decline that had begun by 1960. The number of Indian infant deaths per 1,000 live Indian births was 79.0 in 1960, 43.2 in 1970, and 15.0 by 1981.

Mortality rates for most other Indian age groups also maintained a downward trend over the same period. The Indian "standardized death rate" is a calculation of the death rate (deaths per 1,000 population) the Indian population would have if it had the same age composition as the overall Canadian population. The 1981 standardized death rate for registered Indians was 9.5 deaths per 1,000 population, compared with 6.1 deaths per 1,000 population among the Canadian population.

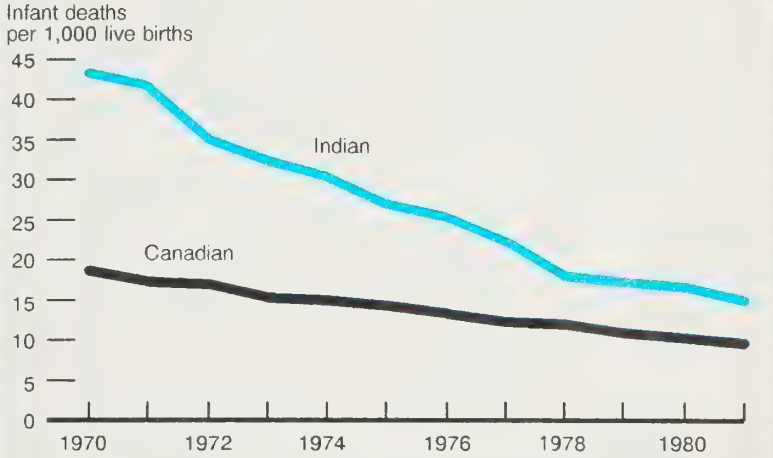
The major causes of death for registered Indians are "accidents, poisoning and violence"; and many of these deaths are alcohol-related.

Total Fertility Rate of the Registered Indian and Total Canadian Populations, 1968-1981



Source: B. Ram, and A.Romaniuc, *Fertility Projections of Registered Indians, 1982 to 1996* (Ottawa: INAC, 1985).

Infant Mortality Rate of the Registered Indian and Total Canadian Populations, 1970-1981



Source: G. Rowe and M.J. Norris, *Mortality Projections of Registered Indians, 1982 to 1996 (Ottawa: INAC, 1985).*

Just over 174 Indian deaths per 100,000 population resulted from these causes in 1983. This was three times the rate for Canadians as a whole. However, seven years earlier, "accidents, poisoning and violence" were killing Indian people at a rate of 248 per 100,000, or four times the Canadian rate. Although many factors are likely associated with the decline in this cause-specific death rate for Indians, it should be noted that significant alcohol and drug-abuse programs were implemented during this time period. All other major causes of death among Indians, except cancer, showed a decline in the 1976-83 period. The rates of death due to respiratory and digestive system diseases have fallen to levels similar to those of the overall Canadian population.

Age Composition

The Indian population is aging as a result of the decline in both Indian fertility and mortality rates, as well as the progression of the Indian 'baby boom', born during the 1960s, from the younger age ranges into the labour force age group. But while the Indian population is getting older, it is aging more slowly than the Canadian population. The share of the total Indian population under age 15 declined to 39% in 1981 from 42% in 1976 and 48% in 1966. If present trends continue, the proportion of children is expected to fall further to 34% by 1996. By contrast, the population aged 15-64 years has increased its share of the total population from 46% in 1966 to 57% in 1981. On the basis of assumptions of moderate growth, this group is expected to comprise 62% of the total Indian population by 1996. Numerically, the registered Indian population aged 15-64 is projected to grow from 190,000 in 1981 to 284,000 by 1996.

Also contributing to the shift in the age profile of the Indian population, is the fact that the Indian population experienced its own "baby boom" in the 1960s. Throughout the 1980s this group will be in the young adult "family forming" age group of 15 to 29. During this period, for example, they will account for over half of the Indian labour force. The growth in the size of this group will exert important demographic pressures and will pose some significant planning issues in relation to job creation, housing, and social and welfare services.

Selected Causes of Deaths Among Registered Indians and the Canadian Population, 1976 and 1983

	Deaths per 100,000 Population			
	Registered Indian		Canada	
	1976	1983	1976	1983
Selected causes of death:				
Accidents, poisoning, and violence	247.7	174.3	66.8	57.5
Circulatory system diseases	153.3	141.5	355.2	326.4
Neoplasms (cancer)	54.0	56.0	151.5	172.0
Respiratory diseases	75.1	52.0	51.3	49.7
Digestive system diseases	34.5	28.1	27.2	28.2
Infections and parasitic diseases	18.2	6.9	4.4	3.8

Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Medical Services Branch, *Indians and Inuit of Canada: Healths Status Indicators*.

Migration

Although Indians are widely believed to be highly mobile, both the 1971 and the 1981 Censuses revealed that a slightly smaller portion of the Indian population, than that of the overall Canadian population, had moved from one centre to another during the five-year period prior to the census. In 1981, for example, 19% of Indians, versus 20% of the total Canadian population lived at a different location than the one they had lived at in 1976. In absolute terms, though, the number of Indians who moved to another centre almost doubled in the 1976-81 period compared to the 1966-71 period.

Urban areas continued to be the preferred destination of Indian migrants, attracting 56% of all migrants in the 1976-1981 period; in the five years prior to 1971 the figure had been 55%. While urban areas were the recipients of the greatest number of Indian in-migrants, they also contributed an even larger number of Indian out-migrants. In the 1976-81 period, 62% of all Indian migrants originated from urban areas; this is up from 49% in the 1966-71 period. Indian reserves also experienced an increase in their relative share of in-migrants–from 21% in 1966-71 to 28% in 1976-81.

Migrants[1], by Places of Origin and Destination, 1966-71 and 1976-81

	Percentage of Total Indian Migrants					
	1966-1971			1976-1981		
	In-migrants	Out-migrants	Net migrants	In-migrants	Out-migrants	Net migrants
	%					
Indian reserve	21	13	+8	28	17	+9
Rural non-reserve	23	37	-14	16	21	-5
Urban metropolitan area[2]	25	18	+6	30	32	-2
Urban non-metropolitan area[2]	30	31	-12	6	30	-3

[1] Migrants include those individuals who lived in a different centre at the end of the 5-year period than they had at the beginning.

[2] Metropolitan urban areas are those with a population of 100,000 or more; non- metropolitan urban areas refer to urban areas with less than 100,000 population.

Sources: Andrew J. Siggner, "Preliminary Results from a Study of 1966-71 Migration Patterns among Status Indians in Canada" (Ottawa: Department of Indian Affairs & Northern Development, 1978); and M.J. Norris, "Migration Patterns of Status Indians in Canada, 1976-1981" (mimeo, June 1985)

Out-migration from reserves also increased from 13% in 1966-71 to 17% in 1976-81. In terms of net migration (in-migrants minus out-migrants), Indian reserves were net gainers of migrants, while all other areas were net losers over the 1976-81 period. Urban metropolitan areas had a net loss of 2% of all Indian migrants in 1976-81, compared to a net gain of 6% of all Indian migrants in the 1966-71 period.

Housing

In 1984, almost half (47%) of Indian housing failed to meet basic standards of physical condition, over one-third (36%) were seriously overcrowded, and 38% lacked some or all of basic amenities such as running water, indoor toilet, or bath or shower.

The improvements in Indian housing include a reduction in crowding problems in that the average number of persons per house has dropped from six in 1977 to five in 1984. In addition, in 1984, one-third more houses had basic amenities than in 1977. As well, between 1977 and 1984, there was a substantial reduction (from 15% to 2%) in the number of units considered unsalvageable.

Employment, Income, and Occupation Structure

When applied to the on-reserve Indian population, the concepts of "employment" and "unemployment" present difficult problems of measurement. For example, persons engaged in activities such as hunting and trapping often do not perceive these traditional activities as employment, especially if they are carried out to provide basic necessities of life. In addition, persons living on remote reserves often do not meet the statistical definition of being unemployed (out of work, but seeking work in the four weeks prior to the census or survey), when there is no work currently available in their local area.

Census data, which at present is the only source of statistics on labour force activity on reserves, indicate that among registered Indians aged 15 and over, only 38% were employed in 1981, compared to 60% of the overall population. In fact, the majority (54%) of the over 15 Indian population (compared to 35% in the general population) is



not in the labour force. As well, the unemployment rate for Indians was about two and a half times higher than that for the overall Canadian labour force in 1981. In that year, unemployment among Indians stood at 17%, compared with 7% for Canada as a whole. Unemployment was also particularly high (24%) among Indian youth aged 15-24 in 1981.

The Indian unemployment rate in rural/reserve areas, at 18%, was slightly higher than in urban areas (16%). The unemployment rate for Indian women in urban non-reserve areas was about four percentage points higher than Indian men, while the on-reserve rate for women was somewhat lower than that for women in urban areas.

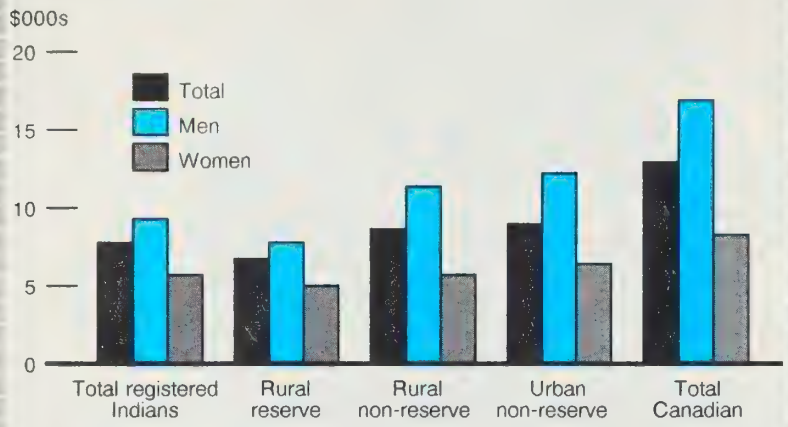
The occupational structure of the registered Indian population shows some important differences from the general population. Within the experienced Indian labour force in 1981, 52% were engaged in white-collar jobs, which include managerial, professional, technical, clerical, sales, and service occupations. The comparable figure in the general population was 64%. Only 2% of the Indian labour force was employed in such traditional activities as hunting, fishing, and trapping, although this low percentage may result from the reporting and conceptual problems mentioned earlier. The percentage of Indians engaged in occupations in the primary industries as a whole (including agriculture and other forms of resource extraction) was 12%, compared to 9% for the general population.

Some of the most interesting occupational data pertain to Indian women. For instance, virtually the same percentage of Indian women as women in the general population, (26% and 25% respectively), work in the managerial, professional or technical category. Proportionately and numerically, Indian women outnumber their male counterparts in this category, especially in the on-reserve population. On reserves, the proportion of employed women in this category is twice as high as that for men (30% versus 14%).

The beginning of the 1980s witnessed some reduction in the disparity in the average annual income between registered Indians and the general population. In 1980, the average annual income of the Indian population was 60% of that of the general population; that, however, is up from 33% in 1971. Indians residing on rural reserves or settlements in 1981, had incomes which averaged about 58% of those of the general population, while the comparable figure for the Indian population living in urban areas was about 67%.

The average annual income for Indian women was well below that of Indian men in 1980. On reserves and settlements it was about $7,000 for men and about $5,100 for women. In urban areas the disparity was even more pronounced, with men receiving nearly twice the income of women ($12,300 versus $6,400).

Average Annual Income in 1980 for Registered Indians and All Canadians, by Sex and Selected Types of 1981 Residence



Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, special tabulations.

Significant differences exist between Indians and the overall Canadian population with regard to the source of income. Government transfer payments supplied 35% of registered Indians of labour force age with a source income in 1981, compared to only 16% of the general population. Also, 61% of Indians earned income through wages and salaries, compared to 70% of the general population. With respect to one form of transfer payment, social assistance, data from INAC indicate that the total social assistance payments (including administrative costs) increased from $34 million in 1970-71 to over $142 million by 1980-81, a growth of 315% in ten years. Much of this growth, of course, is the result of inflation; still the growth in social assistance payments to Indians, in constant dollars, was over 90% in this period.

A small number of Indian bands have important sources of material wealth located on their reserves. Oil, gas and mineral developments have resulted in a tenfold increase in the revenues to such Indian bands, but most of that wealth is concentrated in Alberta. Other mineral potential, for example, gold, iron, copper, and asbestos, exists on 15-25% of the reserves in the Atlantic, Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan regions.

Education

Indian education in Canada is in the midst of a radical change. Indian education is now increasingly under the control of Indian communities as a result of the gradual implementation of a policy originally formulated by the National Indian Brotherhood in the 1970s. Attempts have been made to make the curriculum more relevant to Indians' daily lives and culture; Indian teachers, Indian teachers' aides, and Indian elders are now common in the classroom; and Indian languages are being taught and, in some cases, used as the language of instruction. Between 1979-80 and 1983-84, the number of students taking courses in which an aboriginal language was the medium of instruction over half of the time increased by 62%. As well, the number of students taking an aboriginal language as a subject,

Occupational Category of Indians in the Experienced Labour Force, by Sex and Selected Types of Residence, 1981

Selected Types of Residence	Managerial, Professional or Technical	Clerical	Sales	Service	Farming	Fishing, Hunting Trapping	Forestry, Logging Mining	Processing	Machine Production	Other
					%					
Total Indian population										
Total	19.2	12.4	4.1	16.1	3.8	2.1	5.8	5.3	7.7	23.5
Male	15.0	4.0	3.1	9.9	5.2	3.3	8.9	6.1	9.5	35.1
Female	26.0	25.6	5.6	25.9	1.6	0.3	0.9	4.0	5.0	5.2
Rural reserves										
Total	19.1	9.4	2.7	13.9	5.0	3.2	8.3	4.9	5.3	28.1
Male	13.7	2.8	1.9	8.8	6.7	4.6	11.6	5.6	6.0	38.6
Female	30.4	23.3	4.4	24.7	1.6	0.4	1.5	3.6	3.9	6.1
Urban non-reserve										
Total	20.2	16.4	5.3	18.8	1.6	0.9	2.8	5.5	10.4	18.1
Male	17.6	6.3	4.4	12.0	2.2	1.5	5.0	6.6	14.3	30.1
Female	23.2	27.8	6.2	26.4	1.0	0.3	0.4	4.2	5.9	4.6
Total Canadian population										
Total	24.4	18.9	9.0	12.0	4.1	0.4	1.4	4.1	10.7	15.2
Male	23.8	7.0	8.7	10.0	5.3	0.5	2.2	5.3	14.3	23.3
Female	25.3	36.3	9.4	15.7	2.2	0.0	0.1	2.3	5.3	3.3

Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, special unpublished tabulations.

Ratio of Home Language Use to Mother Tongue[1] among Registered Indians, 1981



[1] Represents the number of people using a given language at home divided by the number of people having that language as their mother tongue (the language first learned and still understood).
[2] Includes Algonkian languages other than Cree and Ojibway.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, special tabulations.

or in a course using it as a part-time medium of instruction, grew by over one and a half times in this period.

The dropout rate of Indian students has attenuated significantly; the retention rate for Indian students from Grade 2 to graduation from Grade 12, as of 1984-85, was 31%, up from 18% in 1975-76. Significant progress has also been made in the area of postsecondary schooling. In 1971, barely 3% of the Indian out-of-school population had attained at least some postsecondary education. By 1981, the percentage had risen to almost 19%. The proportion of natives with postsecondary education, however, is still only about half that for the total Canadian population (36%), but the gap is closing; in 1971, the overall Canadian percentage was nine times the Indian figure. Among Indians with postsecondary education, three out of four have their training from trades or other non-university schools, while the remainder have at least some university education or are university graduates.

There are differences in the educational attainment of Indians living on rural reserves and Indians living in the urban areas of Canada, as well as differences within the Indian population according to sex. In 1981, only 13% of the out-of-school Indian population on rural reserves had post-secondary education as compared to 20% of those in urban areas. As well, in 1981, 2,425 Indian women were enrolled in universities compared to only 1,495 Indian men, while a further 3,520 Indian women, compared to 2,315 Indian men, were enrolled full- or part-time in non-university postsecondary education institutions. In 1981, 1,435 Indian women had one or more university degrees (as opposed to 1,170 men).

Language Retention

Today, maintaining cultural identity has become an important issue for Indian peoples across Canada. One crude measure of cultural retention is the ratio of the number of people using a given language at home with the number of people having that language as their mother tongue (the language first learned and still understood).

In 1981, the ratio of home language use to mother tongue for all aboriginal language groups was well below 100. For example, for every 100 Indians with Ojibway as a mother tongue, only 71 were using it as a home language in 1981. On the other hand, for every 100 Indians with English as their mother tongue, there were 119 using it as a home language. When measuring home language use on its own, two out of every three registered Indians reported using English as their home language. However, despite the apparent increased use of English at the expense of aboriginal languages among registered Indians, in recent years there has been a resurgence of Indian interest in Indian culture, as was discussed in the earlier section on education.

Summary

Indians in Canada have experienced some improvement in their living conditions in recent years, at least as measured by the various national demographic, social and economic indicators used in this analysis. However, on many indicators of ''well-being'' Indians still lag significantly behind the norm of Canadians as a whole. Furthermore, important regional differences among Indians themselves also exist on some of these indicators.

Notes

[1] This article is an abridged version of an article which appeared as Chapter 2 in *Arduous Journey: Canadian Indians and Decolonization*, edited by J. Rick Ponting, published by McClelland and Stewart Ltd., Toronto, 1986.

[2] Projections to 1996 are from J. Perreault, L. Paquette, and M.V. George, *Population Projections of Registered Indians, 1981 to 1996* (Ottawa, INAC, 1985).

[3] The total fertility rate measures the average number of births per woman based on the birth rates of women in the childbearing years between the ages of 15 and 44.

Andrew J. Siggner *is Manager of the Aboriginal Peoples Output Programme, 1986 Census, Statistics Canada.*

COMMUNITY COLLEGES: AN ALTERNATIVE TO UNIVERSITIES

by Jo-Anne Parliament



Community colleges, for the most part a relatively recent addition to the education system, have become an integral part of the postsecondary system in Canada. Although institutions similar to today's community colleges have existed for many years, the current community college system was introduced in the early 1960s. This type of institution was established in response to the demand for a different kind of education than that being offered at universities. Community colleges were designed to provide a response to rapidly changing labour market conditions, while at the same time filling the growing demand for technically-trained personnel in health, business, engineering and human resources.

Although provincial community college systems differ in response to distinctive social and economic forces which prevail in different regions, programmes in all provinces can generally be divided into three broad categories: postsecondary, trades-level vocational, and continuing education. Postsecondary courses require completion of high school and generally include career/technical programmes aimed at specific employment fields upon graduation. In some provinces, they also include one- and two-year university transfer programmes, which allow students to enter the second or third year of an undergraduate programme. Trades-level vocational programmes, on the other hand, do not require a high school diploma and usually last less than a year. The discussion in this article focuses on the postsecondary programmes, unless otherwise indicated.

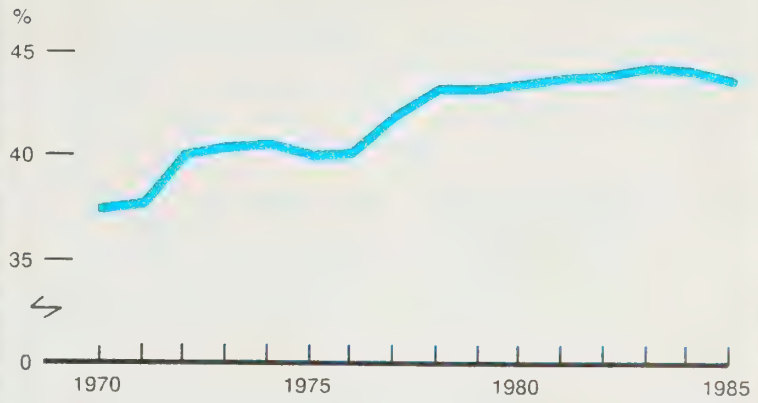
Provincial Differences in Community Colleges

Community colleges lack the homogeneity characteristic of universities across Canada. The different community college systems can be roughly classified as follows:

1. Ontario's Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology (CAATs) offer two- and three-year career/technical programmes aimed at employment upon graduation. Some CAATs also provide general arts and science programmes, but transfer to university is not intended. The four Atlantic provinces, as well as Manitoba and the Northwest Territories, have similarly organized institutions offering career programmes.
2. Quebec's collèges d'enseignement général et professionel (Cégep) are unique in that completion of one of their two-year academic programmes is mandatory for university admission. They also offer three-year career/ technical programmes.
3. College students in British Columbia, Alberta and the Yukon can choose between career/ technical programmes (similar to those in the CAATs) and university transfer programmes. Successful completion of the two-year transfer programme allows students to enter a university undergraduate degree programme with advanced standing.
4. Saskatchewan's community colleges are oriented specifically to community needs, and focus on continuing education and the promotion of adult learning. There are technical institutes in this province which provide postsecondary career/technical training, as well as a variety of one- and two-year certificate/diploma programmes.

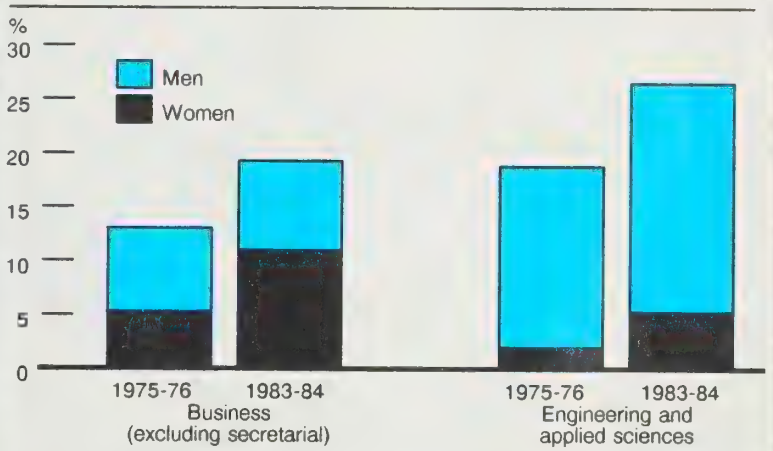
Other specialty colleges which are designed to respond to particular regional needs, exist throughout Canada. They include areas of study such as agriculture, forestry and fisheries.

Full-time Community College Enrolment as a Percentage of Full-time Postsecondary[1] Enrolment, 1970-1985



[1] Excludes graduate enrolment.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-229, *Education in Canada;* Education, Culture and Tourism Division, unpublished updates.

Business and Engineering Graduates as a Percentage of All Community College Graduates, by Sex, 1975-76 and 1983-84



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-222, *Enrolment in Community Colleges*; Education, Culture and Tourism Division, unpublished updates.

Community College Enrolment

Full-time enrolment in community colleges grew rapidly from the time of the establishment of this system through the early part of the 1980s. Between 1970 and 1980, the number of students enrolled full-time in community colleges increased by 57%, from 166,100 to 260,800. In the same period, full-time university undergraduate enrolment increased by just 22%. Rapid growth occurred in both types of institutions during the early 1980s. Full-time enrolment in community colleges was up 21%, while full-time university undergraduate attendance increased by 17% between 1980 and 1983. In 1984, however, enrolment in both community colleges and universities increased by just 2%. Preliminary figures for 1985 indicate that there was actually a small (0.4%) drop in

community college enrolment that year, the first decline since the establishment of these institutions. In comparison, full-time university undergraduate enrolment, according to preliminary data, again grew by 2% in 1985. As a result of these fluctuations in the 1980s, full-time community college enrolment in 1985 stood at 320,200 compared with 413,300 for full-time undergraduate enrolment, according to preliminary enrolment figures.

Full-time enrolment in community colleges accounted for a growing percentage of total full-time postsecondary enrolment[1] during the 1960s and 1970s. Community colleges' share of full-time postsecondary enrolment, however, has remained relatively stable during the 1980s. Between 1970 and 1980, community college enrolment as a percentage of total full-time postsecondary enrolment climbed from 38% to 44%, and it has remained at about 44% since 1980.

Business and Engineering Largely Responsible for Increase in Graduates

The total number of community college graduates from career/technical programmes grew by 54% between 1975-76 and 1983-84, up from 38,300 to 59,100. Three-quarters of this growth was due to the increase in the number of students graduating from business and engineering programmes. At the same time, most other fields of study also experienced growth, with the noticeable exception of nursing.

The number of community college business graduates more than doubled, from 5,100 in 1975-76 to 11,500 in 1983-84. A similar trend was evident in university business faculties with both the number of bachelor's and master's degrees increasing rapidly in this time period.

The number of community college graduates from engineering programmes also more than doubled between 1975-76 and 1983-84, increasing from 7,200 to almost 15,800. As well, the number of graduates in mathematics and computer science, an area of study within the engineering programme, grew by more than five times, from 900 in 1975-76 to 4,600 in 1983-84. (The overall increase in this trend is exaggerated somewhat by the inclusion of a new group of programmes in Quebec in 1983-84.)

One result of the large increase in the number of business and engineering graduates is that by 1983-84, graduates from these two programmes accounted for almost one-half (46%) of all community college graduates, up from about one third (32%) in 1975-76.

Women Shifted Away from Nursing to Business and the Sciences

Responding to the changing needs of the job market in the mid-1970s, women shifted away from nursing towards programmes which had greater potential for finding employment after graduation. In 1975-76, nursing accounted for more than one in three female graduates from career programmes. By 1981-82, this ratio was down to one in five, as the number of female nursing graduates dropped by over 2,000, from 8,300 in 1975-76 to 6,200 in 1981-82. Since then there has been a reversal of the trend. In 1983-84, 6,800 women graduated from nursing, although this is still well below the 1975-76 total.

While fewer women graduated from nursing programmes in 1983-84 than in 1975-76, more graduated from business programmes (excluding secretarial studies). Over that period, the number of female business graduates increased by over 200% compared with an increase of 63% for men. As a result, women made up the majority (57%) of business graduates in 1983-84, up from 40% in 1975-76. Also, women graduating from this field of study in 1983-84 made up 20% of all female graduates that year, compared with just 9% in 1975-76. The percentage for men graduating from business programmes remained relatively stable at about 20% in the same time period.

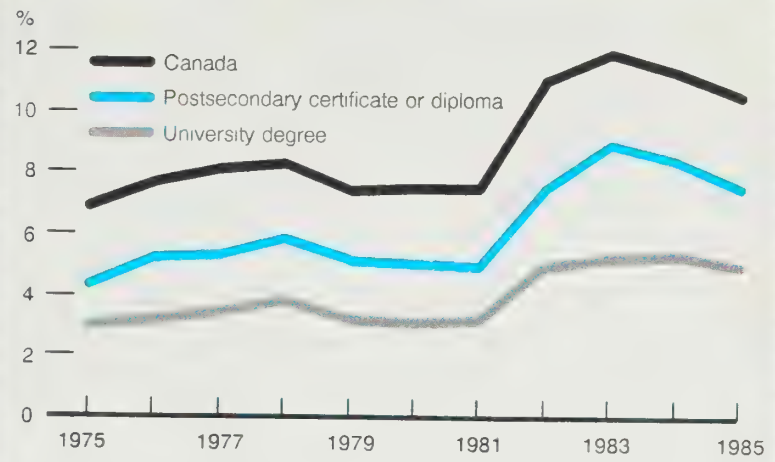


Women have also made major inroads in the traditionally male-dominated fields of engineering and applied sciences, and natural sciences and primary industries. Women made up 20% of all engineering and applied science graduates in 1983-84, up from 11% in 1975-76. For the natural sciences and primary industries, women as a percentage of all graduates from these programmes increased from 20% to 30% between 1975-76 and 1980-81, and remained fairly constant after that.

Community College Graduates Have Advantage in the Labour Force

A postsecondary certificate or diploma offers certain labour market and economic advantages, although, on average, these advantages are not as great as those for a university degree. For example, over the last decade the unemployment rate for those with a community college certificate or diploma has been lower than the national rate; however, it has been higher than that for university graduates. In 1985, the unemployment rate for those with a community college certificate or diploma was 7.5%, while Canada's overall unemployment rate was 10.5%. That year, the unemployment rate for university graduates was 4.9%.

Unemployment Rate by Level of Education, 1975-1985



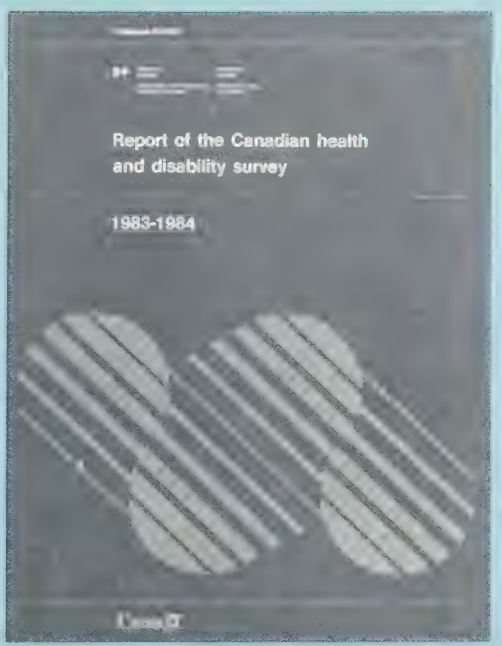
Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*.

Note:

[1] For the purposes of this article, full-time postsecondary enrolment does not include graduate enrolment.

Jo-Anne Parliament *is Assistant Editor of Canadian Social Trends.*

Report of the Canadian Health and Disability Survey, 1983-1984



An estimated 13% of adult Canadians have some kind of disability. This translates into approximately 2.5 million people. Of these, two-thirds have mobility problems and many use special transportation aids to assist them in everyday life.

Published jointly with the Department of the Secretary of State, the **Report of the Canadian Health and Disability Survey** summarizes the findings of detailed health and disability surveys carried out by Statistics Canada in 1983 and 1984. With its help, researchers working in the social services field can identify who the disabled are, where they live, what types of disabilities they have and what special requirements they may have.

The 142 pages of text including 41 tables are organized according to the following topics:

- demographics (eg. age, urbain or rural residency)
- types of disability
- causes of disability (eg. circulatory, lower limbs)
- use of aids and prostheses
- socio-economic disadvantage
- disabled children.

Report of the Canadian Health and Disability Survey, 1983-1984, Catalogue No. 82-555E (Occasional), is available for $15.00 in Canada ($16.50 other countries) from Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6.
Telephone (613) 993-7276.

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THE DECLINE OF REAL FAMILY INCOME, 1980 TO 1984

by Colin Lindsay

Average real income, that is, income adjusted for inflation[1], has declined for Canadian families in the period 1980-1984. Expressed in constant 1984 dollars, the average income of Canadian families fell from $37,950 in 1980 to $35,770 in 1984, a decline of $2,180 per family. This translates into a decline of 5.7% in average real family income in Canada during this period.

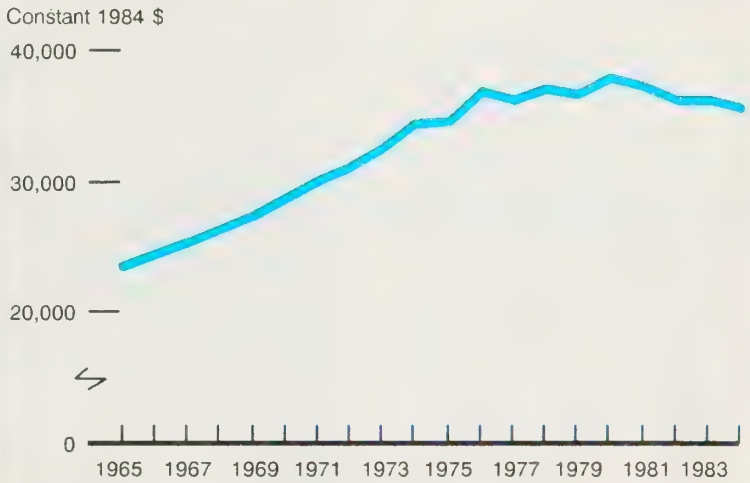
Much of the decline in family income in the early 1980s took place during the recession of 1981-82. Average family income declined by over $1,500, or 4.1%, over the course of 1981 and 1982. It continued to fall, however, in the post-recession years. In the 1983-1984 period, average family income declined a further $640, or 1.7%.

The decline in average real family income between 1980 and 1984 represents a dramatic departure from income trends observed in the previous decade and a half. The period from 1965 to 1976 was characterized by very rapid growth in average real family income. During this period, the real income of Canadian families increased by an

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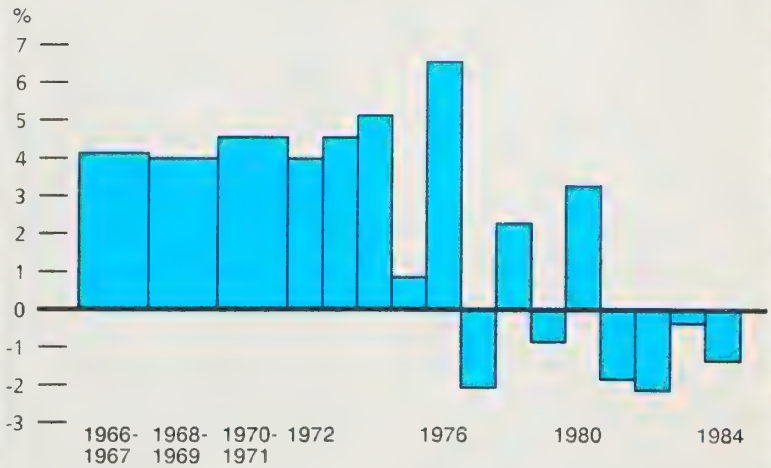
The trend of declining average real family income was reversed in 1985. Preliminary estimates show that after inflation was accounted for, average family income was 2.4% greater in 1985 than in 1984. This represents an increase of about $860 per family (in constant 1984 dollars). Still, the overall average real family income in Canada was 3.5% lower in 1985 than it had been in 1980.

Average Real Family Income, 1965-1984



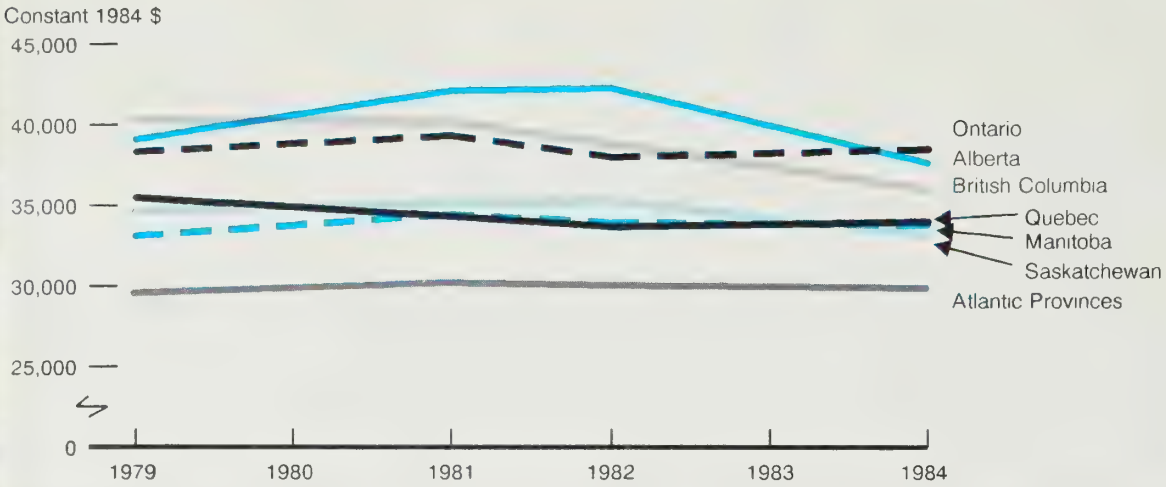
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207, *Income Distributions by Size in Canada.*

Annual Percentage Change in Average Real Family Income, 1966-1984



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207, *Income Distributions by Size in Canada.*

Average Real Family Income, by Region, 1979-1984



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207, *Income Distributions by Size in Canada.*

average of almost 4.2% per year. In the latter part of the 1970s, real growth of family income slowed; however, the overall trend was still one of growth. Average real family income in 1980, for example, was 2.6% greater than it had been in 1976.

Declining Family Income Unevenly Distributed Across Canada

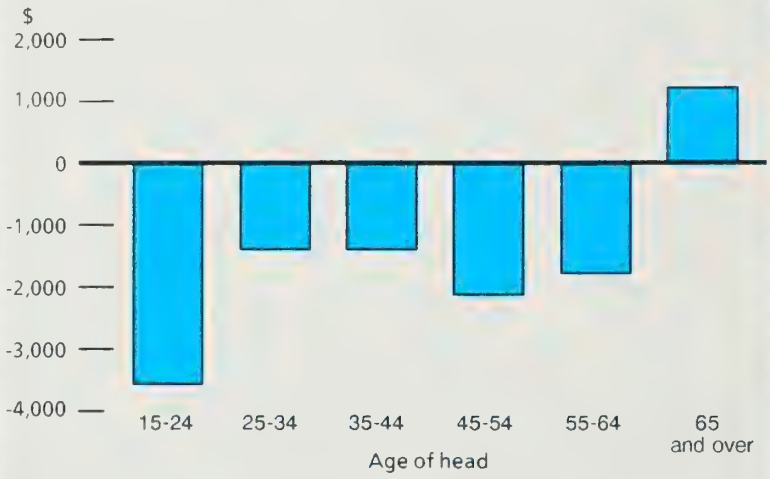
While average family income fell in all regions between 1981 and 1984, the declines were steepest in Alberta and British Columbia. In these two provinces, average family income was more than 10% lower in 1984 than in 1981. Family income in Alberta declined by almost $4,600 per family in this period, a decline of 10.8%. At the same time, family income in British Columbia fell by over $4,200 per family, or 10.5%.

Saskatchewan also experienced a relatively sharp decline of over $2,000 (5.9%) in average family income in the 1981-1984 period. Much smaller declines in average family income were recorded in Ontario (down 2.2%), Manitoba (2.0%), Quebec (1.2%),and the Atlantic provinces (1.0%).

Young Families Hit Hardest

Average real family income declined for families in all age groups, with the exception of families with head aged 65 and over. The largest decline in average family income was among families in which the head was under 25. The average income of these young families fell by almost $3,600, or 13.7%, between 1981 and 1984. Relatively large declines in family income were also experienced by families with head aged 45-64. The income of families headed by individuals aged 45-54 declined by almost $2,200 (4.7%) per family while families with head aged 55-64 lost $1,800 (4.7%) per family. Families with head aged 25-34 and 35-44 had $1,400 less income per family in 1984 than in 1981. This represents a 4.0% decline in real income for families with head aged 25-34, and 3.4% for those with head aged 35-44. In contrast, the average real income of families with head aged 65 and over was over $1,200, or 4.9%, greater in 1984 than in 1981.

Change in Average Real Family Income, by Age of Family Head, 1981-1984



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207, *Income Distributions by Size in Canada.*

Behind the Decline: Falling Real Earnings

Much of the decline in real family income relates to the fact that family earnings have not kept pace with increases in the cost of living. The real earnings of Canadian families, that is, their income from wages and salaries, plus income from self-employment, declined by $2,230, or 7.2%, per family between 1981 and 1984.

Income from transfer payments such as unemployment insurance benefits and social security, in contrast, increased by almost $900 per family between 1981 and 1984. This increase in transfer benefits offset about 40% of the total income lost form earnings.

Family Incomes Falling Despite Growing Contributions by Wives[2]

The average real income of Canadian families fell in the early part of the 1980s, despite the fact that the real contribution to family income by wives continued to grow. Between 1981 and 1984, the contribution of wives to the total income of husband-wife families increased by $700 per family. The real income generated by husbands, however, declined by an average of $1,500 per family in the same period.

This shift is a major change from trends which occurred in the 1970s. Between 1971 and 1975, the average income of husbands in husband-wife families increased by $2,800, compared with an average increase of $1,800 for wives. Between 1975 and 1979, the average income produced by husbands grew by just over $400 per family, compared with an average gain of almost $1,400 for wives. One result of these shifts is that the percentage of family income provided by wives increased from 14.7% in 1971 to 25.1% in 1984.

The primary reason for the growth in income generated by wives is that more wives are working outside the home and receiving income. The proportion of wives reporting earnings rose from 39.4% in 1971 to 47.0% in 1975 to 58.6% in 1984. As a result, the percentage of families solely dependent on the income of the husband has declined sharply since 1971. That year, the husband was the sole income recipient in 34.8% of all husband-wife families, while in 1984, just 15.0% of husband-wife families were supported solely by the husband's income. In 1971, 40.1% of husband-wife families' income was provided by both partners. By 1984, this figure had jumped to 58.0%. In the remaining proportion of families–25.0% in 1971 and 27.0% in 1984–the husband and other family members, including wives, received some income.

Composition of Family Income, 1975-1984

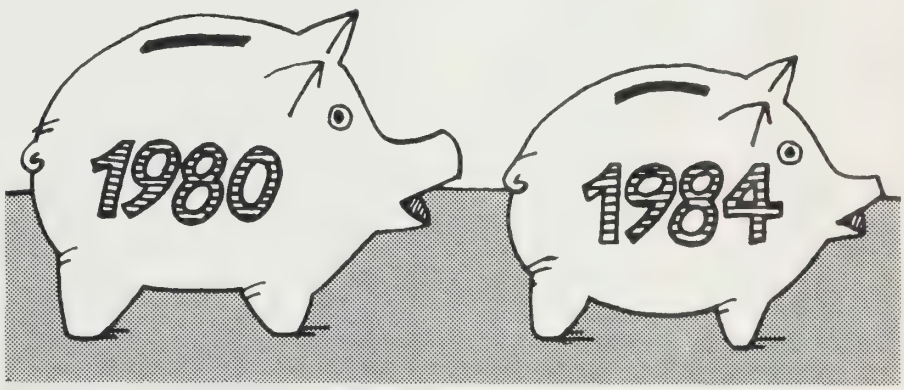
	1975	1979	1981	1982	1984
	constant 1984 dollars				
Wages and salaries plus net income from self-employment	29,750	31,160	30,780	28,980	28,550
Investment income	1,390	2,030	2,530	2,700	2,110
Transfers	2,900	2,770	3,020	3,640	3,900
Other	690	790	890	1,090	1,220
Total	34,730	36,740	37,230	36,410	35,780

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207, *Income Distributions by Size in Canada.*

Contributors to Family Income in Husband-wife Families, 1971-1984

	Husband's income	Wife's income	Other incomes	Total
	constant 1984 dollars			
1971	24,290	4,610	2,360	31,260
1975	27,090	6,410	2,800	36,300
1979	27,510	7,780	3,380	38,670
1981	27,110	8,850	3,290	39,250
1982	26,450	9,010	3,080	38,540
1984	25,610	9,550	2,830	37,990

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances Division, unpublished data.



Conclusion

The early part of the 1980s were characterized by declines in average real family income. This represents a turnaround from the rapid growth in family income experienced from the mid-1960s to the mid-1970s, and the more moderate growth of the late 1970s.

The decline in family income was felt unevenly across the country, and by different family groups. Alberta and British Columbia experienced particularly sharp declines in average family income; as did families headed by persons aged 15-24. As well, the overall decline in real family income in the early 1980s occurred in spite of the fact that women's contributions to family income have increased.

[1] All figures are expressed in constant 1984 dollars.

[2] This section refers only to husband-wife families. Previous sections included all families. Husband-wife families made up 85% of all families in 1984.

Colin Lindsay *is Managing Editor of Canadian Social Trends.*

Children in low-income families

by Brigitta Arnoti

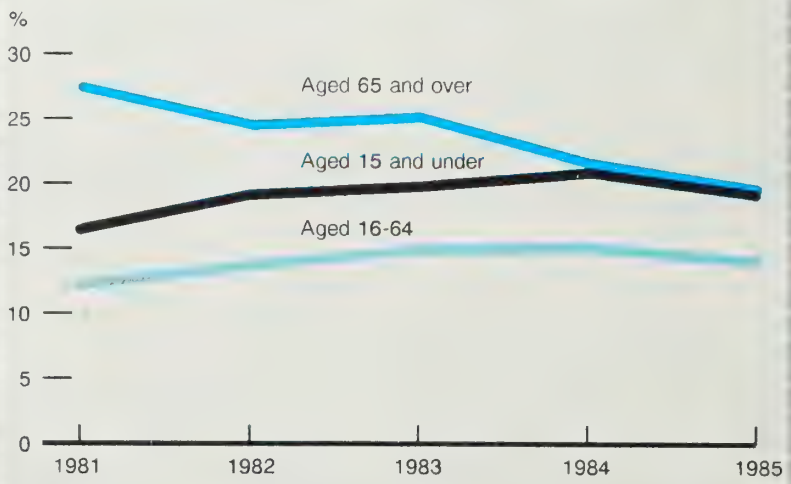
While the incidence of low income among Canada's elderly population has fallen in recent years, the proportion of children living in low-income families[1] has increased. Between 1981 and 1985, for example, the proportion of Canadians aged 65 and over living on incomes below Statistics Canada's Low-Income Cut-Offs declined from 27.4% to 19.6%. During the same period, the percentage of all Canadian children under 16 years of age living in families with low incomes increased from 16.5% to 19.2%. As a result of these divergent trends, almost the same proportion of Canadian children, as elderly Canadians, were identified as low-income persons in 1985, whereas in 1981, there had been an eleven percentage point difference.

The incidence of low income also increased among the population aged 15-64, however, the proportion of this age group experiencing low income is considerably lower than that for either the young or the old. Betweeen 1981 and 1985, the proportion of the total population aged 15-64 classified as low income increased from 12.2% to 14.1%.

In terms of actual numbers, 1.1 million Canadian children were living in families with low incomes in 1985. This represents a 15% increase in the number of low-income children between 1981 and 1985. During the same period, the total number of children in Canada actually declined slightly.

One major reason for the increase in the proportion of children living in low-income families is that families with children are increasingly more likely than families without children living at home to have low incomes. In 1984, 19.5% of families with children under 16 years of age were classified as having low incomes, compared with just 9.7% of families without children. And while the proportion of low-income families with children increased by over four percentage points between 1981 and 1984, the incidence of low income among families without children was up only one percentage point in the same period.

Low-Income Persons as a Percentage of Age Group, 1981-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207, *Income Distributions by Size in Canada.*

[1] Refers to children under 16 years of age, living in families in which the family income is below Statistics Canada's Low-Income Cut-Offs. The Low-Income Cut-Offs define persons or families as having low incomes if the household unit spends more than 58.5% of income on food, shelter and clothing.



By far the greatest proportion of children in low-income families occurs in families headed by female lone parents. In 1984, over two-thirds (68%) of all children living with only their mother were in low-income families. And this percentage is growing. In 1981, 62% of children in female headed lone-parent families were living in low-income families. As well, female-headed lone-parent families accounted for 34% of the increase in the total number of children living in low-income families in Canada in the 1981-1984 period.

Children in families headed by a lone male parent, and those in two-parent families headed by someone between the ages of 15 and 24 were also characterized by relatively high rates of low income. In male-headed lone-parent families, 35% of children were in low-income families in 1984, while the figure was 28% for two-parent families with head aged 15-24. In contrast, in 1984, just 14% of children in two-parent families with head aged 24-44, and 15% of those in families headed by someone 45 or older were living in low-income families.

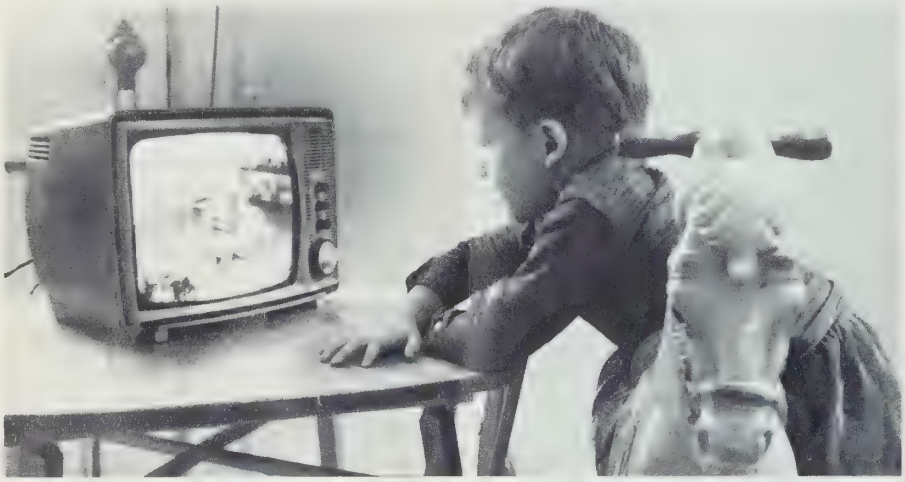
It should be noted, however, that the bulk of the increase in the number of children living in families with low incomes, between 1981 and 1984, was accounted for by children in two-parent families with head aged 25-44. Children living in these families made up almost two-thirds (62%) of the increase in the total number of low-income children in this period. As a result, in 1984, children in these families made up almost half (48%) of all low-income children, up from 45% in 1981. Of course, children in these families also make up the vast majority–72% in 1984–of all children in Canada.

Growth in the number of children in low-income families was greatest in Alberta and British Columbia. The number of low-income children increased by 94% in Alberta between 1981 and 1984, while the figure was up 77% in B.C. in the same period. In fact, the increase in the number of children in low-income families in these two provinces made up 51% of the total increase in low-income children in Canada between 1981 and 1984. The number of children living in low-income families did increase in all other regions, however, in no

Children in Low-Income Families, by Family Characteristics, 1981 and 1984

	Low-Income Children					
	Total		As a % of all children in that group		As a % of all low-income children	
	1981	1984	1981	1984	1981	1984
Lone-parent families						
Female head	332,250	416,270	61.5	67.8	34.3	34.4
Male head	15,190	25,180	20.2	34.9	1.6	2.1
Two-parent families Head's age						
15-24	36,460	34,900	25.5	27.9	3.8	2.9
25-44	432,780	582,720	10.5	14.0	44.7	48.2
45 and over	128,160	118,950	13.8	15.4	13.2	9.8
Other families	24,160	30,980	23.2	21.6	2.5	2.6
Total	969,000	1,209,000	16.5	20.8	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances, special tabulation.



Children in Low-Income Families, by Region, 1981 and 1984

	Low-Income Children as a % of all children in that Province	
	1981	1984
Atlantic Provinces	22.5	26.0
Quebec	18.7	23.0
Ontario	14.2	16.6
Manitoba	21.0	22.7
Saskatchewan	22.4	25.6
Alberta	11.7	22.4
British Columbia	13.8	22.2
Canada	16.5	20.8

Source: Statistics Canada, Survey of Consumer Finances, special tabulation.

other province did the growth in the number of low-income children exceed 20%.

Despite the major increases in the number of children living in low-income families in Alberta and British Columbia, the regions characterized by the highest proportions of their children falling below the Low-Income Cut-Offs in 1984 were the Atlantic provinces and Saskatchewan. Ontario, on the other hand, had by far the lowest proportion of its children living in low-income families of any province.

Thus, while the incidence of low income among the Canadian population aged 65 and over has declined in recent years, the proportion of children living in low-income families has increased. In fact, in 1985, the proportion of low-income children was almost the same as that for the elderly population.

KEEPING TRACK

The number of persons charged with impaired driving offences in Canada decreased for the second consecutive year in 1985. There were 131,700 such persons that year, which represents a 7% drop from 1984, and a 19% decline since 1981. Although all provinces registered a decline in the number of impaired driving offences between 1981 and 1985, Newfoundland, New Brunswick, Quebec and Manitoba experienced an increase over the last year.

While the incidence of children living in low-income families is by far greatest in female-headed lone-parent families, most of the increase in the number of low-income children was made up of children from two-parent families with head aged 25-44. As well, over half the overall increase in children living in low-income families occurred in British Columbia and Alberta.

Brigitta Arnoti *is a staff writer for Canadian Social Trends.*

RETIREMENT INCOME PROGRAMS IN CANADA

by Hubert Frenken



There is continuing concern over the adequacy of provisions made to deliver retirement income to a rapidly aging Canadian population. Comments have focussed on the future viability of the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans (C/QPP), portability of pensions, provision of survivor benefits, and on the adequacy of current arrangements for women who have chosen not to fully participate in the labour market throughout their adult lives.

At present, there is no comprehensive accounting of all potential sources of retirement income. Most notably, we do not know in detail the current number, nor the

financial holdings of personal Registered Retirement Savings Plans (RRSPs), nor of annuity arrangements purchased by individuals, nor of the personal savings of Canadians for retirement purposes.

Firm data exist only on the assets of employer-sponsored pension plans and on the financial assets and activities of the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans. With respect to employer-sponsored pension plans, the entitlements of participants in these plans are extremely varied and often are reduced or forfeited because of changes in employment. The lack of uniformity of terms, and the contingent nature of the benefits, make the assessment of future benefit levels, and implicitly their adequacy, a matter for conjecture. As well, employer-sponsored pension plan membership in Canada covers only a part of the labour force.

Deposits in RRSPs first exceeded the total contributions made by employees to employer-sponsored pension plans in the 1977 taxation year and have continued to do so since. But while individual employed Canadians are making increasing provisions for their own retirement by means of the tax sheltered potential of RRSPs, this opportunity is less accessible to those who do not work, or those whose earnings are so low that they do not have the means to make substantial provisions for their own retirement income. Personal income security for retirement is therefore likely to continue to be a major concern for many Canadians facing retirement.

Income Support Programs for the Elderly

The income support system for the elderly in Canada has three major components: the Old Age Security/Guaranteed Income Supplement program (OAS/GIS); the Canada and Quebec Pensions Plans (C/QPP); and essentially private arrangements including employer-sponsored pension plans, RRSPs, and other personal savings.

Old Age Security benefits are paid to all Canadians 65 years of age and over that meet certain minimum residency rquirements. Guaranteed Income Supplements, on the other hand, are based on a means-test and are paid only to those pensioners



who have little or no income above the OAS. GIS payments are reduced by $1 for each $2 of monthly income from sources other than the OAS. Therefore, individual pensioners whose income in 1985 from other sources exceeded $8,000, and couples whose combined income above the OAS was $10,300, were not entitled to any GIS. In January 1986, the Old Age Security pension was $285.20, while the maximum Guaranteed Income Supplement was $338.95 for a single pensioner and $220.75 for each spouse of a married couple.

Unlike OAS/GIS pensions which are transfer payments made by the federal government, Canada and Quebec Pension Plan benefits are dependent on contributions made by employees and their employers. Participation is mandatory for all workers between the ages of 18 and 65, whether they are paid workers or self-employed. Under C/QPP regulations, workers are required to contribute 1.8% of their pensionable earnings and employers are required to match these contributions. Self-employed workers contribute both the employee and employer portions, that is, 3.6% of their pensionable earnings.

Canada and Quebec Pension Plan benefits are determined at the time of retirement based on the number of years of pensionable service of the retiree and the current maximum pensionable earnings level. The maximum C/QPP pension payable to a worker retiring in 1986 was $486.11 per month; however, the estimated 1.5 million C/QPP retirement benefit recipients in January, 1986 received an average of $230 that month. Retirement benefits under the QPP can be applied for as early as age 60, or postponed until age 70. Appropriate adjustment in the benefit levels are made for the added or reduced number of years the pension will be paid. This provision will be introduced in the CPP in 1987.

The characteristics of employer-sponsored pension plans vary widely from plan to plan in terms of contributions and benefits. For example, slightly more than 30% of the members did not have to contribute at all in 1984. Their pension costs were totally carried by employer contributions. For the nearly 70% of members that were required to contribute, the contributon rate was either a percentage of earnings, varying from a low of 1% to a high of 10%, or a flat dollar amount per pay period. Some employers were required to make substantial contributions to cover unfunded liabilities, whereas others were able to take advantage of surpluses in the pension fund by not making any contributions. Still others have made withdrawals from these surpluses, setting off a legal debate as to the rights of employers and their employees regarding pension fund surpluses.

The benefits paid to retiring participants of employer-sponsored pension plans also vary extensively, depending on a number of factors such as the benefit formula in the plan, the number of years of participation, the member's salary, the

amount contributed to the plan and the age of the retiree.

OAS/GIS benefits are indexed each quarter (in January, April, July and October) and C/QPP pensions are increased at the beginning of each year to reflect changes in the Consumer Price Index. Less than 5% of employer-sponsored pension plans provide for automatic indexing of retirement benefits and this indexing is almost exclusively for public sector workers.

RRSP benefits depend on the amount accumulated by the individual and the type of annuity elected on retirement. Other personal savings of individual Canadians, for purposes of retirement income security, are more difficult to measure. Such savings may be in the form of home equity, bank savings or other personal investments. Some employee benefit programs, such as employee profit sharing plans, deferred profit sharing plans, and thrift or savings plans sponsored by employers, though not intended specifically as an opportunity for retirement savings, do in fact, serve that purpose to a large extent. The proceeds from these programs are paid to the participants in a lump sum, often at retirement. Little data are currently available on either the contributions made or reserves accumulated under these programs.

Program Coverage

In January 1986, 2.6 million Canadians received the OAS pension. Of these, half received full or partial GIS benefits–290,000 or 11% of the total received the maximum GIS benefit, and just over 1 million or 39% received at least partial GIS benefits.

The proportion of the elderly population receiving GIS benefits, particularly that receiving maximum support, however, has declined. In 1978, for example, 19% of OAS recipients also received full GIS benefits; and 54% received either full or partial GIS support.

In 1985, almost 1.5 million elderly Canadians received either Canada or Quebec Pension Plan benefits. This total represented half (50%) of the total elderly population that year. The proportion of the elderly population receiving C/QPP benefits has grown rapidly since 1970. That year, when the program was still in its infancy, just 9% of persons 65 years of age and over received C/QPP benefits. By 1975, the figure had climbed to 25% and by 1980, 44% of the elderly were receiving support from these plans.

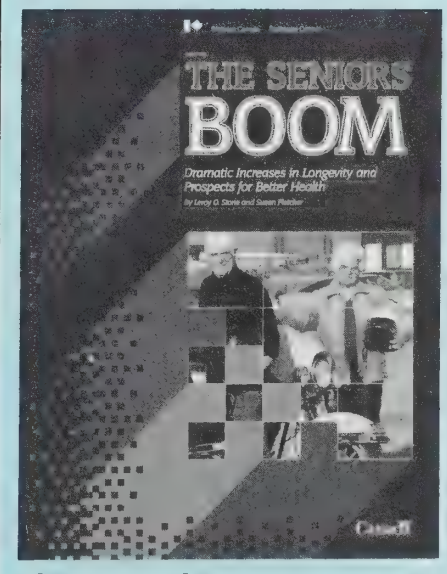
There is considerable difference in the proportion of elderly men and women getting C/QPP benefits. In 1985, 75% of men aged 65 and over, compared with just 31% of elderly women, received pensions from one of these two programs. This difference reflects the fact that few women now 65 or older had careers outside their homes, and as a result did not contribute to either the Canada or Quebec Pension Plans when they were younger.

This difference in C/QPP support received by men and women, however, should begin to close in the future. An increasing proportion of women are working outside the home and as a result more are covered by these plans. In 1983, 57% of women between the ages of 18 and 64 made contributions to C/QPP, up from 54% in 1975. During the same period, the proportion of working age men contributing to these plans declined from 96% to

THE SENIORS' BOOM

Dramatic Increases in Longevity and Better Prospects for Health

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada



Canada

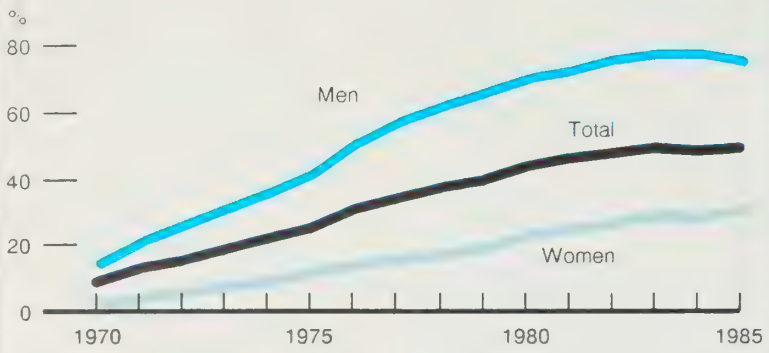
Recent dramatic improvements in longevity have taken place among Canada's seniors. At the same time, they have shown indications of improving their health practices. Thus, Canada's seniors have good prospects not only of living longer, but also of enjoying better overall health.

This is the message of *The Seniors' Boom*, a thought-provoking book which offers innovative approaches to analyzing data on aging. It charts Statistics Canada's latest projections of what will happen as the baby boomers pass through their senior years, as well as exploring aspects of lifestyles that appear to promote better health among the elderly.

With 48 pages of well-written text and 32 colourful charts, The Seniors' Boom is an essential reference for Canadians who need a clear and concise review of aging in the 1980s. A valuable purchase for health service professionals to help plan future health care facilities, marketers developing new products for the elderly, and private organizations and government agencies providing social services.

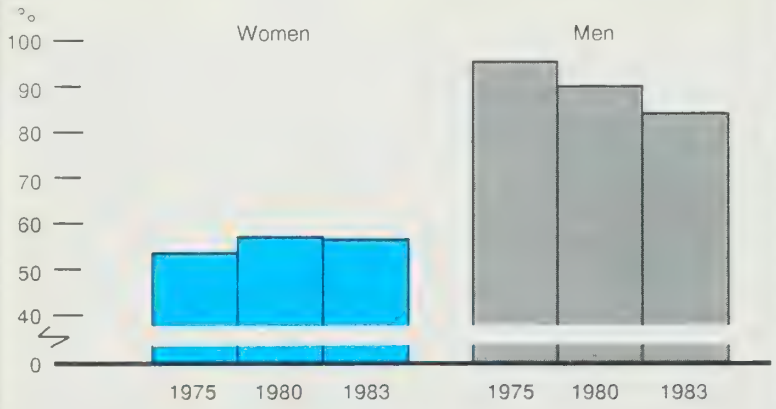
The Seniors' Boom: Dramatic Increases in Longevity and Better Prospects for Health, Catalogue No. 89-515, is available for $9.95 in Canada ($10.95 other countries) from Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6, telephone (613) 993-7276 or from your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre.

Percentage of Elderly Men and Women[1] Receiving Canada or Quebec Pension Plan Benefits, 1970-1985



[1] Includes those 65 and over except in 1984 and 1985; in those years, includes persons 60 and over in Quebec, and 65 and over in the rest of Canada.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 86-507, *Canada and Quebec Pension Plans;* Health and Welfare Canada and the Quebec Pension Board.

Percentage of Men and Women Aged 18-64 Contributing to Canada or Quebec Pension Plans, 1975, 1980 and 1983



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 86-507, *Canada and Quebec Pension Plans;* Health and Welfare Canada and the Quebec Pension Board.

85%. Still, a far greater percentage of working age women than men were not included in either Canada or Quebec Pension Plans in 1983.

In 1984, 4.6 million workers–47% of all employed paid workers–were participants in an employer-sponsored pension plan. The proportion of employed paid workers covered in these plans has remained stable in the 1980s. However, because of the high unemployment levels experienced in recent years, the proportion of the total labour force covered by employer-sponsored pension plans has declined. In 1984, 37% of all persons in the labour force were covered by these plans, compared with 40% in 1980.

As with the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans, involvement of women in employer-sponsored pension plans lags behind that of men. In 1984, 37% of paid employed women were covered by one of these plans, compared with 54% for men. When just full-time paid workers are considered, however, the difference in coverage rates for men and women closes considerably. In 1984, 49% of women, compared with 58% of men, employed full-time were covered by employer-sponsored pension plans.

Contributions to Income Support Programs

The contributions made to C/QPP, employer-sponsored pension plans and RRSPs increased in the period 1979 to 1983. Total contributions to these programs rose 46% in this period from less than $14 billion in 1979 to more than $20 billion in 1983. In comparison, Canada's labour force increased by 8.5% during this period and the total population grew by just 5%.

Total contributions to C/QPP rose 49% between 1979 and 1983, increasing from $3.1 billion to $4.6 billion. The growth in RRSP contributions was even greater – these were up 62% in the 1979-1983 period. Contributions to employer-sponsored pension plans increased by 38%, from $7.6 billion in 1979 to $10.5 billion in 1983.

Growth of contributions to the various programs, however, is less dramatic when the effect of inflation is accounted for. In fact, the total real contributions to these plans, that is, contributions expressed in constant dollars, increased by less than 1% between 1979 and 1983, and real contributions to employer-sponsored plans actually declined.



Proportion of the Total Labour Force and All Paid Workers Covered by Employer-Sponsored Pension Plans, by Sex, 1970, 1980, 1982 and 1984

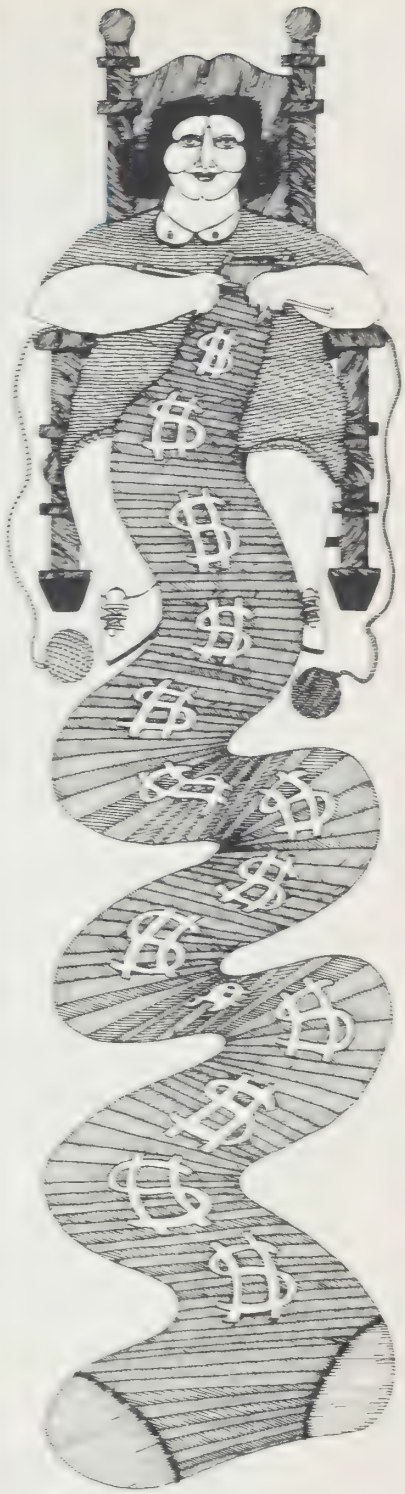
	Pension Plan Members			
	Total number	As a % of total labour force	As a % of all employed paid workers	As a % of full-time employed paid workers
	'000s		%	
1970				
– men	2,087	37.4	46.7	
– women	735	28.5	32.2	
– total	2,822	34.6	41.8	
1980				
– men	3,098	45.0	54.0	57.1
– women	1,578	31.1	37.6	47.7
– total	4,475	39.6	47.6	53.8
1982				
– men	3,181	44.6	53.6	56.9
– women	1,477	30.4	36.2	46.5
– total	4,658	38.9	46.5	53.1
1984				
– men	3,039	42.4	54.4	58.4
– women	1,525	30.0	37.1	49.1
– total	4,565	37.2	47.0	54.9

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 74-401, *Pension Plans in Canada*

Retirement Program Benefits

The total benefits paid under OAS/GIS, C/QPP, and employer-sponsored pension plans[1] increased from $11.5 billion in 1979 to nearly $21 billion in 1983, an increase of 82%. Total C/QPP benefits more than doubled in this period, increasing by 128%. Benefits paid by employer-sponsored programs increased by 84%, while OAS/GIS payments increased by 67%.

These three programs accounted for an estimated 43.5% of the total reported income of tax filers aged 65 and over in 1983. The benefits paid by these three programs, however, were not the only income of pensioners – 42.4% of their income was from investments and rental income, and 11.8% was income from employment. As well, no separate data are currently available on annuity payments resulting from RRSPs or other savings. The supplementary allowances paid by a number of provinces to their senior citizens, and GIS benefits, which are not taxable and therefore not reported, are also not included. It should also be remembered that many individuals with no tax liability do not file a tax return. The 1.5 million tax filers represented only approximately



Total Contributions to Canada and Quebec Pension Plans, Employer-Sponsored Pension Plans and Registered Retirement Savings Plans, 1979, 1981 and 1983

	Total Contributions		
	1979	1981	1983
	millions current $		
C/QPP	3,087	3,971	4,586
Employer-Sponsored Pension Plans	7,585	9,393	10,486
RRSPs	3,091	3,879	4,997
Total	13,763	17,243	20,072

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 13-001, *National Income and Expenditure Accounts*, and 74-401, *Pension Plans in Canada*; Revenue Canada, *Taxation Statistics*

[1] It should be noted that the $8 billion reported by tax filers in 1983 as income from employer-sponsored pension plans includes such supplementary benefits as disability pensions and certain pensions. Also included in these payments may be some amounts originating in RRSPs or from lump sums. The C/QPP provides contributor and retirement income, but no disability or survivor benefits. Finally, spouses' Allowances have been included in the OAS/GIS payments.

60% of the total number of Canadians aged 65 and over. It is assumed that the non-tax filers had little or no income over and above the OAS pension and were in receipt of all or part of the means-tested GIS.

Net Retirement Assets in Canada

The net cash flow of the various income support programs over time has been very much on the positive side, that is, receipts have exceeded disbursements to a considerable extent. As a result, almost $250 billion in reserves had been accumulated at the end of 1984 as sources of future retirement income. This total does not include the OAS/GIS program which is not prefunded, the personal savings of individuals and families, or reserves for employee benefit programs such as profit sharing plans and thrift or savings plans.

By far the greatest volume of reserves for retirement income purposes in Canada is held for employer-sponsored pension plans. At the end of 1984, an estimated $168.4 billion–over 2/3 of the total–had accumulated under a variety of funding methods to meet future pension payments and other obligations under these plans. By far the largest portion of employer-sponsored pension plan reserves are in trusteed plans. This $94.4 billion is invested almost totally in marketable securities and, as a single pool of investment capital in Canada, is surpassed only by the combined reserves of the chartered banks.

In 1984, estimated reserves for RRSPs and the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans both stood at over $38 billion. Of the accumulated reserves in the C/QPP program, nearly 75% were in the Canada Pension Plan. In both the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans any additional funds, after allowances are made for meeting payments and administrative costs, are invested. In the case of the Canada Pension Plan these investments are in the form of non-marketable obligations of the federal and provincial governments. Quebec Pension Plan reserves, on the other hand, are deposited with the Quebec Deposit and Investment Fund which in turn invests these funds in a variety of marketable securities.

Notwithstanding the progress made in the post-war years in improving retirement incomes, the present combination of public and private income maintenance supports cannot yet be regarded as fully satisfactory. Inadequacies may be thought of in terms of three dimensions: low levels of pension plan coverage, insufficiency of total retirement income payments from all sources–public and private, and the poor integration of public programmes, employer-sponsored pensions, and private savings.

Hubert Frenken *is an analyst with Population Studies Division, Statistics Canada.*

Total Old Age Security/Guaranteed Income Supplement, Canada/Quebec Pension Plan, and Employer-Sponsored Pension Plan Benefits, 1979, 1981 and 1983

	Total benefits		
	1979	1981	1983
	millions current $		
OAS/GIS	6,145	8,295	10,243
C/QPP	2,088	3,137	4,721
Employer-Sponsored Pension Plans	3,267	4,426	6,015
Total	11,500	15,858	20,979

Sources: Health and Welfare Canada, *Monthly Statistics, Income Security Programs*, and *Canada Pension Plan, Statistics Bulletin*; Revenue Canada, *Taxation Statistics*.

Distribution of Total Income by Source of Income for Tax Filers Aged 65 and Over, 1983

	% of total income
OAS/GIS	17.4
C/QPP	11.4
Employer-sponsored pension plan	14.7
Rental, interest and other investment income	42.4
Wages, salaries and other employment earnings	9.0
Professional, business and other self-employed earnings	2.8
Miscellaneous income	2.3
Total	100.0

Source: Revenue Canada, *Taxation Statistics*.

Accumulated Reserves, Canadian Retirement Income System, 1984

Retirement Program	$ millions	%
Canada/Quebec Pension Plans	38,668	15.5
Employer-sponsored pension plans:		
Trusteed	94,427	37.8
Insurance companies	22,868	9.2
Canadian government annuities	702	0.3
Consolidated revenue funds	50,424	20.2
Sub-total	168,421	67.5
RRSPs	38,130	15.3
Individual annuities	4,425	1.8
Total	249,644	100.0

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 61-006, *Financial Institutions, Financial Statistics*, and 74-201, *Trusteed Pension Plans, Financial Statistics*; Health and Welfare Canada and the Quebec Pension Board; Employment and Immigration Canada, Actuarial Services; Supply and Services Canada; various provincial government financial reports.

COMPENSATION FOR VICTIMS OF CRIME

by Craig McKie

In the publicity given to crimes of violence in Canada, very little continuing attention has been devoted to the plight of those left injured during the course of criminal violence. Prior to 1967, no one living in Canada had the option of requesting compensation from government for their injuries, nor were awards made to assist surviving dependants of those who died as a result of a crime. Now, all parts of Canada, except Prince Edward Island, are covered by such plans.

Since the introduction of criminal injuries compensation plans in Canada, the number of claims has grown much faster than both the number of violent crimes and the overall population. This type of rapid growth is often experienced in the early years of a new benefit plan as it is accepted and used by the public. Between 1973-74 and 1984-85, the number of criminal injuries compensation claims increased at an average annual rate of 12.7%, far in excess of the average rates of increase in crimes of violence (3.9%) or population (1.2%). During the period from 1973-74 to 1982-83, the number of claims increased from 1,457 to 4,981, though a small part of this increase reflects the addition of the plan in Nova Scotia in 1981. The number of claims actually declined by 7% in 1983-84, the first time the number has fallen. In 1984-85, however, there was a further large increase in criminal injuries compensation claims. The number of claims increased by 14% that year to a new high of 5,292.

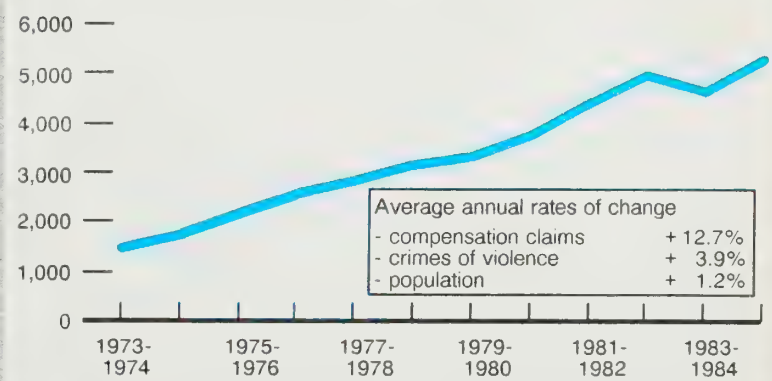
Provincial plans have experienced markedly different rates of growth. Between 1975-76 and 1984-85, the number of applications more than doubled in British Columbia (from 461 to 1,193), Saskatchewan (from 68 to 176), and Quebec (from 594 to 1,480). More moderate growth in the number of applicants occurred in Ontario (from 851 to 1,697) and Manitoba (from 158 to 236) in this period. In addition, there was an increase in the number of claims in Alberta from 187 in 1976-77 to 330 in 1984-85.

One reason for the large differences in provincial growth rates lies in the way in which the prescreening of cases, prior to acceptance of formal applications, is handled in different provinces. For example, cases in which the time limit for applications was exceeded constitute an average of 18% of all cases denied criminal injuries compensation in Quebec between 1976 and 1983. But in Ontario, all cases in which the time limit has been exceeded are first examined by the Board to ascertain whether or not there might be extenuating circumstances that might have justified the delay in filing. If there are no such circumstances, the application is not accepted and neither the case nor the denial is registered. Nationally, claims dismissed for any reason have fluctuated between 11% and 19% between 1975-76 and 1984-85.

Over half (55%) of all criminal injuries compensation cases in 1979-80, the last year for which a distribution of cases compensated by type of offence is available for all jurisdictions, involved simple assaults. Homicide and attempted murder were the next largest offence category accounting for 21% of compensation claims, while robberies resulted in a further 11% of claims. Sexual assaults accounted for 5% of claims, though the proportion was much higher for female claimants.

Incidents of injury to the applicant inflicted while making an arrest, or providing aid to a police officer or attempting to prevent a crime make up a tiny minority of

Number of Applications for Criminal Injuries Compensation in Canada[1], 1973-1974 to 1984-1985



[1] By 1973, all provinces and territories had criminal injuries compensation plans with the exception of the Yukon (plan introduced in 1975), Nova Scotia (plan introduced in 1981), and Prince Edward Island (no plan).

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 86-502, *Criminal Injuries Compensation*.

cases. Many police officers injured in the line of duty are covered by workers' compensation and other benefits, though some do apply for compensation for pain and suffering in jurisdictions where this is permitted. Hence, an analysis of the total cost of compensation would have to include workers' compensation and other related benefits to police officers, in addition to benefits from criminal injuries compensation plans.

The direct cost to taxpayers for criminal injuries compensation in Canada is modest. In 1984-85, total compensation to victims came to just over $21 million. On a per capita basis, this worked out to 84 cents per person in 1984-85, up from 20 cents per capita in 1975-76. The costs associated with this programme are thus small compared to total spending by all levels of government on police, courts, and prisons; criminal compensation payments represent about one half of one percent of this total. However, other forms of assistance for victims do exist such as legal aid and rape crisis centres and these costs are not considered here.

Percentage Distribution of Types of Offences Compensated, 1975-76 to 1979-80

	1975-76	1976-77	1977-78	1978-79	1979-80
Homicide	10.0	11.0	11.8	13.0	12.9
Attempted murder	8.4	9.3	8.0	7.7	8.1
Sexual Offences	3.7	3.8	3.7	4.7	4.6
Assault (not indecent)	56.2	54.6	54.5	53.7	55.0
Robbery	14.0	12.6	12.6	11.7	11.1
Other offences	6.3	5.8	6.8	7.2	6.8
While making arrest or preventing offence	1.4	2.9	2.5	2.0	1.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 86-502, *Criminal Injuries Compensation*.

Criminal Injuries Compensation Payments, 1975-76 to 1984-85

	Compensation paid	Per capita compensation
	current $	$
1975-76	4,412,067	0.20
1976-77	6,221,600	0.28
1977-78	6,560,156	0.29
1978-79	7,258,238	0.32
1979-80	9,201,070	0.41
1980-81	12,032,914	0.52
1981-82	14,523,993	0.60
1982-83	18,572,763	0.76
1983-84	19,710,726	0.80
1984-85	21,198,477	0.84

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 86-502, *Criminal Injuries Compensation*.

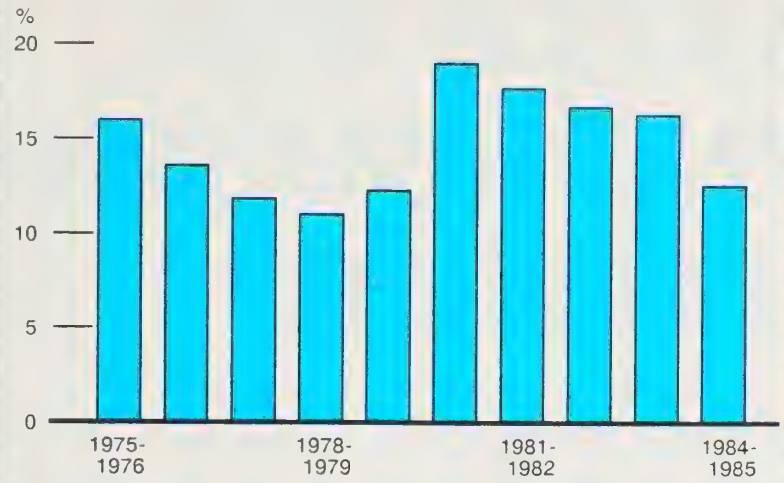
The Origins of Criminal Injuries Compensation Plans

Reparation schemes are to be found stretching back throughout the centuries. Some were based on the civil lawsuit and some on natural justice ('an eye for an eye'). In most of these older arrangements, however, the victim was supposed to be recompensed by the offender; but offenders were often insolvent. As a result, if criminal injuries compensation plans were to be consistent in offering awards to victims, neither the financial ability of victims to sustain a lawsuit, nor of offenders to pay damages awarded could be assumed.

The compensation programme for bodily or mental injuries, or death, inflicted on innocent victims or bystanders in criminal incidents was one of the most novel additions to the Canadian social security system in the late 1960s. This type of compensation forms a small part of a large network of programmes intended to ensure that Canadian residents enjoy both income security and necessary social services regardless of their socio-economic status. The first provincial compensation plan came into effect on September 1, 1967 in Saskatchewan; and was quickly followed by similar plans in several other provinces. Cost-sharing agreements with the federal government were subsequently negotiated with each participating province and territority beginning in 1973.

It is both the philosophical and practical intent of criminal injuries compensation plans to attempt to alleviate the financial burden of an injury inflicted during a criminal act and to provide some compensation to victims. Loss of property, however, is covered only in a limited manner by current criminal compensation arrangements. In cases where an injury is fatal, or the disability inflicted permanent, then recompense in lieu of restoration is offered the victim or the victim's survivors subject to plan limitations. The underlying principle is that compensation should be made available to victims of violent crimes from government funds, though awarded funds may be subsequently reduced if victims successfully sue their assailants for damages. Awards from insurance schemes and payments from other sources such as workers' compensation are also taken into account by the criminal injuries compensation plans.

Percentage of Criminal Injuries Compensation Claims Dismissed, 1975-1976 to 1984-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 86-502, *Criminal Injuries Compensation.*

KEEPING TRACK

Total university gross expenditures more than doubled from $2.6 billion in 1975-76 to $6.3 billion in 1984-85. The two smallest increases, at 6.8% and 5.4%, occurred in 1983-84 and 1984-85 respectively.

Administering Criminal Injuries Compensation in Canada

In Canada, criminal injuries compensation is one of many programmes that are administered by the provinces, but whose cost is shared by the federal government through the Department of Justice. As a general rule, programmes in the provinces and territories all compensate for injuries or death arising from any crime included under the federal/provincial programme which occurred in that province or territory. It is not necessary that the victim be a resident of that jurisdiction or even a Canadian citizen. The various plans do differ in some aspects of their operation, from eligibility to compensation levels, and by types of incidents added to the basic list covered by the federal/provincial agreements.

What these programmes have in common is the intention to compensate only innocent victims of violent crime. Those who participated in the crime are ineligible; and those who contribute to their own misfortune, for example, by baiting a person who subsequently attacked and injured them, may have their awards reduced or their applications refused. These are not "no-fault" plans - the victims actions are pertinent. Nor are these plans intended to replace insurance policies which protect the value of one's property. Criminal injuries compensation plans are very limited in providing compensation for property damaged in criminal incidents. The Alberta plan, for example, does cover material damage done by the police in the course of preventing a crime or making an arrest. In most other plans, personal use property such as eyeglasses are covered.

No one is ever likely to become wealthy on the basis of a criminal injuries compensation award. All provincial plans, except those in Alberta and Saskatchewan, have legislated absolute limits on the amount of awards. Although these limits vary considerably from plan to plan, in all plans they fall far short of the size of personal injury lawsuit damages which may be awarded by the courts. Restitution of compensation must be made up to the amount of the civil suit award, if a concurrent civil suit results in an award.

Among the differences between provincial plans, the most important have to do with which offenses can potentially give rise to compensation (and under what sets of circumstances). Coverage has been added in some plans for injuries or deaths not included in the federal-provincial agreements. Examples include procurring a miscarriage in New Brunswick and Manitoba, and assaults using a motor vehicle in Quebec. Generally the victim or surviving dependents have one year from the date of the incident to file a claim, though in Manitoba two years are allowed. The deadline for application, however, may be extended in all jurisdictions.

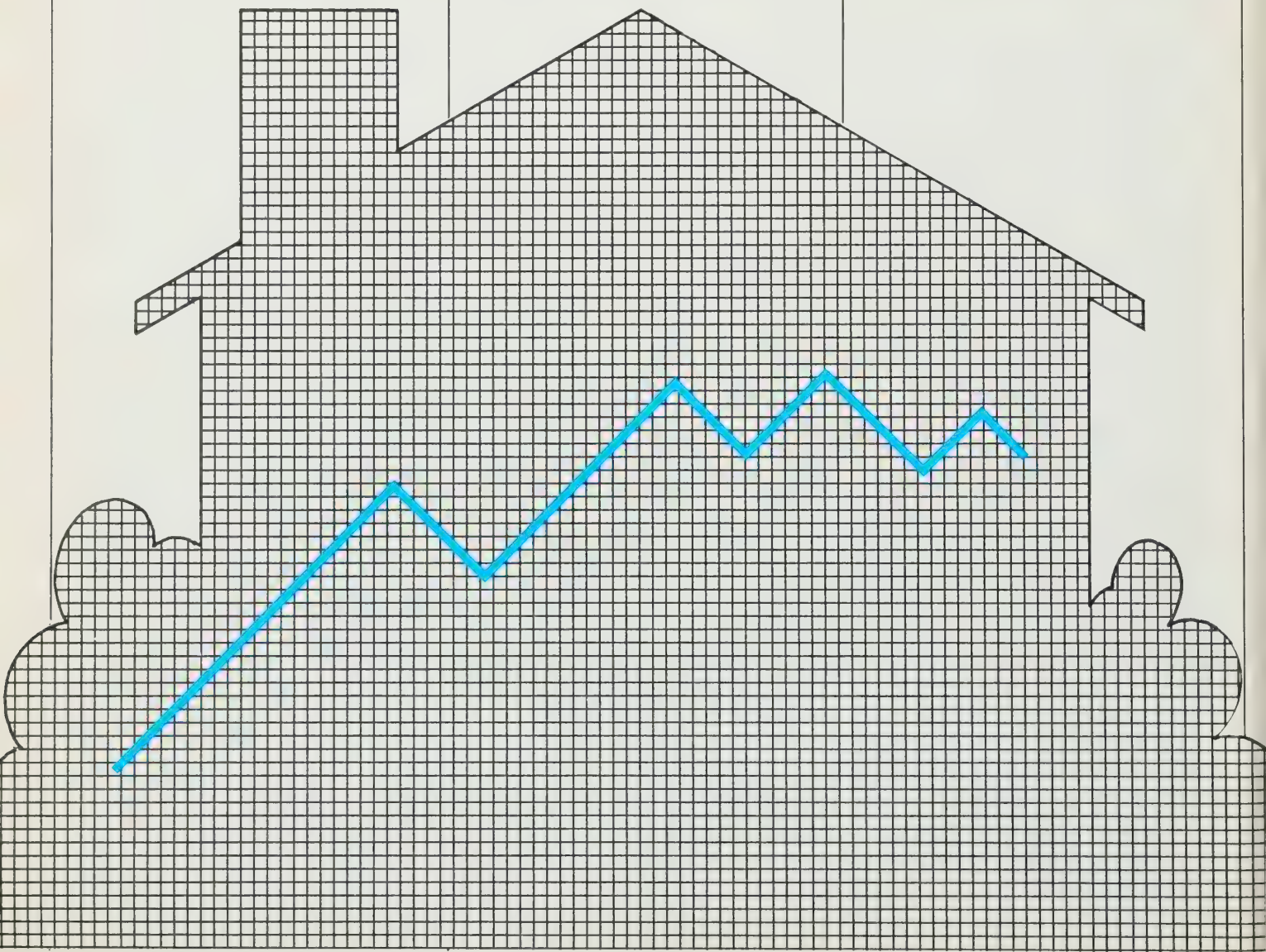
Areas of variation between the plans of the provinces include:
- the maxima of awards;
- victim culpability, which may be grounds for reducing the amount of the award except in Quebec and Manitoba;
- loss or damage to personal property in the incident;
- deductibles from the awards;
- manner of award (lump sum or periodic payment).

Craig McKie *is Editor of Canadian Social Trends.*

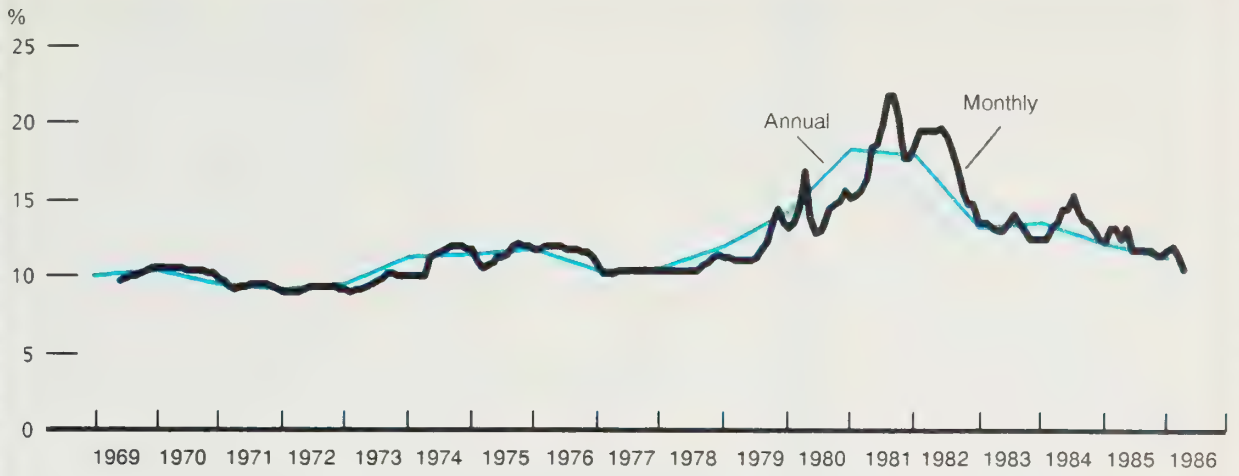
MORTGAGE RATES AND THE HOUSING MARKET

by Alex Berljawsky

Many Canadians shopping for a house in 1986 were pleased with the real estate market. Mortgage rates were lower than they had been for eight years. As a result, housing sales were brisk, and new construction flourished. This is not surprising, given the long-term relationship between mortgage rates, house sales, and construction activity. People buy, sell, and build houses at a livelier pace whenever mortgage rates decline. And the opposite



Mortgage Rate, 1969-1986



Source: *Bank of Canada Review.*

generally occurs whenever mortgage rates go up. The average selling price of existing houses, on the other hand, has generally not been affected by fluctuations in mortgage rates.

Mortgage rates, however, are not the only factor influencing the housing market. Demographic variables, such as the rate at which new families are being formed and the size of the potential home-buyer market have considerable effect on housing demand, as do general economic conditions such as the incidence of unemployment and income levels. It should also be noted that national housing market figures mask considerable differences in regional and local housing markets.

Mortgage Rates

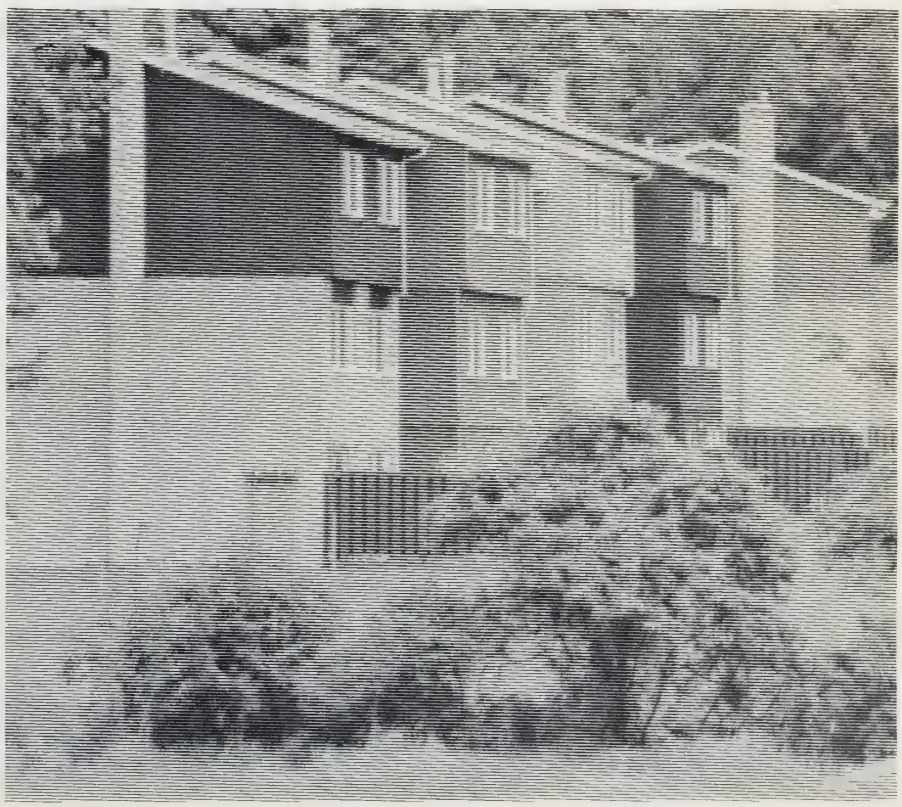
Mortgage rates[1] in Canada over the last decade and a half have been characterized by two quite distinct phases. Between June, 1969 and July, 1979, mortgage rates were relatively stable, ranging from 9% to 12%. Throughout the 1980s, however, mortgage rates have been characterized by large and fairly rapid swings. Beginning in the latter part of 1979, mortgage rates escalated rapidly to a peak of 21% in early 1981. In the spring of 1982, rates began a not always smooth descent which saw them fall back to levels similar to those of the 1970's. In May, 1986, for example, the five-year rate had fallen below 11%.

Sales of Existing Houses

The comparison of housing sales[2] with mortgage rates reveals a "braiding" effect. Generally speaking, as mortgage rates rise, housing sales taper off, and when mortgage rates decline, housing sales increase.

This effect was particularly noticeable during the 1980s. During the recession period of 1981-82, mortgage rates escalated rapidly while unit sales dropped in roughly the same proportion. Later as mortgage rates dropped off, unit sales began to rise. The decline in mortgage rates after 1982, for example, was followed by a 50% increase in the number of housing unit sales between 1983 and 1985.

The effect of mortgage rates during these periods of very steep



swings, however, was delayed. Unit sales did not begin to decline, for example, until 1981, even though mortgage rates had increased dramatically in both 1979 and 1980. Similarly, housing sales did not begin to rebound until 1984, although mortgage rates had fallen substantially in 1982 and again in 1983.

New Housing Construction

As in the case of house sales, trends in construction starts are also related to changes in mortgage rates. Again, throughout the last decade and a half when mortgage rates increased, construction starts generally declined; when mortgage rates declined, construction starts increased.

During the recession of 1981-82, for example, as mortgage rates hit high levels, new construction starts dropped more than 50% from where they had been in the mid-1970s. In the more recent period, construction starts have increased as mortgage rates have fallen, although starts in the mid-1980s were still well below the number recorded a decade earlier.

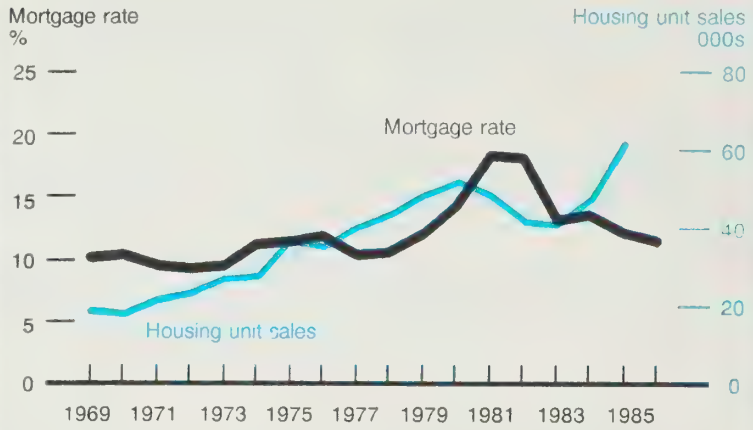
Value of Houses Sold

While total housing sales and construction starts have changed as mortgage rates have shifted, the average dollar value of Canadian homes, as estimated from sales transactions, has been relatively insulated from changes in the mortgage climate. Average house values have risen gradually and steadily from about $25,000 per home in the early 1970s to almost $90,000 in 1986.

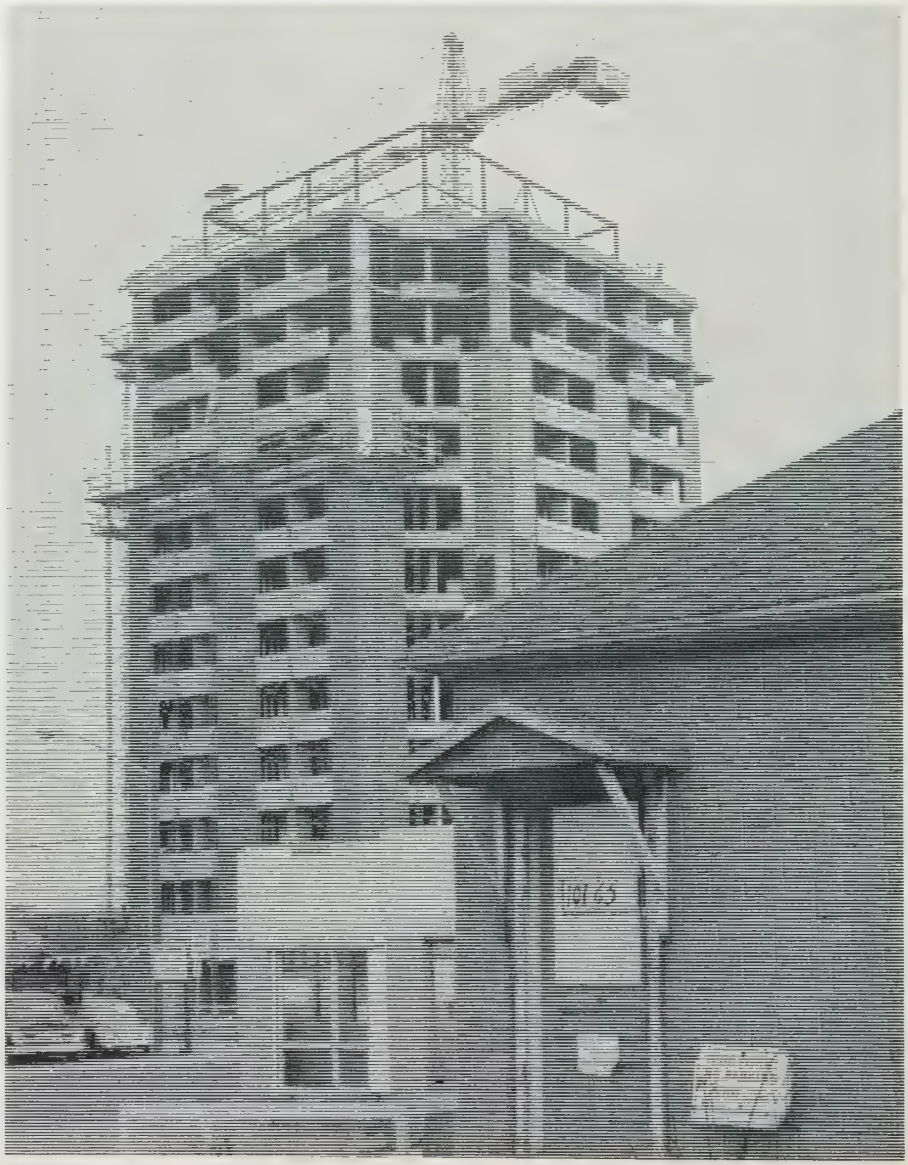
These figures, which are expressed in current dollars, include the effect of inflation on house prices. When the impact of inflation is eliminated, the average value of Canadian homes increased by just under 10% between 1969 and 1985. Still, the significant factor, as it relates to this discussion, is that house values have been relatively unaffected by mortgage rate changes.

The only noticable exception occurred during the 1981-82 recession. After climbing steadily for many years, average house values dropped from $81,600 in December, 1981 to $70,500 in September, 1982. After the recession, house values continued on a path of steady increases.

Mortgage Rate and Housing Unit Sales[1], 1969-1986



[1] See note at end of article.
Sources: *Bank of Canada Review*; Canadian Real Estate Association, Multiple Listing Service Survey.



The First-time Home Buyer Market

The size of the housing market, along with mortgage rates, is a major factor in determining housing sales and starts. The housing market consists of two main components–current homeowners seeking to move to another home, and non-owner households considering the purchase of a home for the first time. Estimates of these non-owner households have made up a constant proportion of around 4% of all single-family households in Canada since the early 1970s.

A household considered most likely to be a first-time home buyer is one characterized as follows:

a. It is a family household
b. The household is currently renting.
c. The person in the household who pays the rent is aged between 25 and 44 years.
d. The total annual household income is $35,000 or more (expressed in constant 1985 dollars).

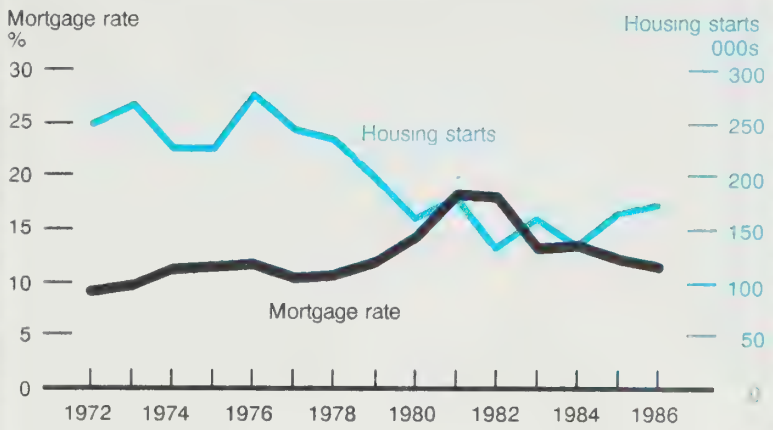
Estimated Potential First-time Home Buyer Households, 1972-1983

	Estimated number of potential first-time home buyer households	As a percentage of total single family households
		%
1972	204,000	4.1
1974	181,000	3.5
1976	219,000	4.1
1978	251,000	4.3
1980	173,000	2.8
1982	261,000	4.1
1983	279,000	4.3

Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division, Household Facilities by Income and Other Characteristics, unpublished data.

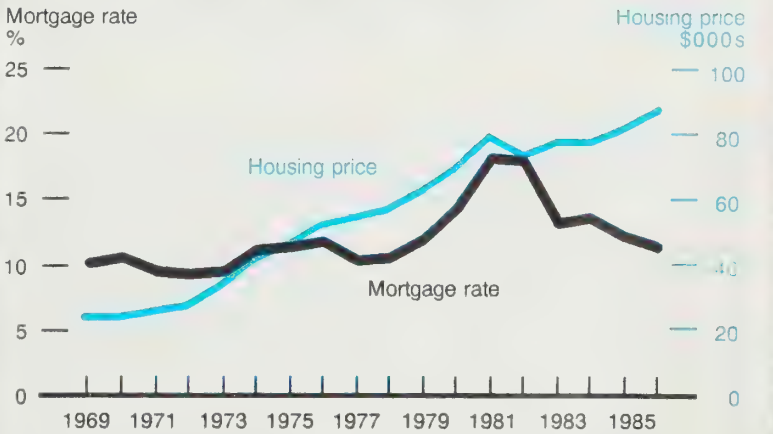
In 1983, there were 279,000 households identified as potential first-time home buyers. These households made up 4.3% of all single-family households in Canada, a proportion which has been fairly consistent since the early 1970's.

Mortgage Rate and Housing Starts, 1972-1986



Sources: *Bank of Canada;* Statistics Canada, Catalogue 64-002, *Housing Starts and Completions.*

Mortgage Rate and Housing Prices[1], 1969-1986



[1] See note at end of article.
Sources: *Bank of Canada Review;* Canadian Real Estate Association, Multiple Listing Service Survey.

Notes:

[1] The mortgage rate refers to the conventional mortgage rate up to April, 1981; after that, it represents the typical chartered bank five-year mortgage rate.

[2] Although there is no universal account of every real estate transaction in Canada, the overall level of house buying can be approximated by looking at the unit sales records of the Multiple Listing Service (M.L.S.) prepared by the Canadian Real Estate Association. Since 1973, the majority of re-sale house transactions have been made through M.L.S., whose over 100 member bureaus serve approximately 80% of the Canadian population. Prior to 1984, M.L.S. unit sales reported residential and commercial units together, but the total consisted primarily of residential sales. It should also be noted that some of the increased sales figures reported up to 1980 reflect a growing share of the total housing market handled by M.L.S.

Alex Berljawsky *is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

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Trusteed Pension Plans, Financial Statistics, 1984

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Expanding the Choices by Ted Wannell and Craig McKie — SUMMER
Mortgage Rates and the Housing Market by Alex Berljawsky — WINTER

Social Indicators

	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
POPULATION								
Canada (000s)	23,517.0	23,747.3	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,631.8	24,885.9	25,127.9	25,358.5*
Annual growth rate (%)	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.9
Immigration	82,939	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	80,793[p]	*
Emigration	63,559	51,060	43,609	44,823	49,869	48,397	47,967[p]	*
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.9[p]
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.9	7.9	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.1[p]
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	699	652	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	9,987	10,395	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311
– goods sector (000s)	3,324	3,474	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348
– service sector (000s)	6,662	6,921	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963
Total unemployment (000s)	908	836	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328
Unemployment rate	8.3	7.4	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5
Part-time employment rate	12.1	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5
Women's participation rate	47.9	49.0	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	31.9	32.6	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	*	*
INCOME								
Average family income – 1982 $	33,513	33,283	34,152	33,728	32,981	32,836	32,405	33,163[p]
% of families with low income	–	13.1	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	–	63.3	–	63.6	64.0	–	65.5	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,294.0	5,184.7	5,106.3	5,030.2	4,994.0	4,974.7	4,945.9	4,940.2[p]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	617.8	623.5	643.4	675.3	722.0	763.9	782.8[p]	787.8[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,819	1,803	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	1,961[p]
Government expenditure on education (1982 $000,000)	22,426.8	22,598.2	22,512.7	23,082.3	23,180.8	24,031.6	23,208.1	24,122.6
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000) – men	22.3	21.4	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	*
– women	7.3	7.0	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	*
% of population 15 + who are regular cigarette smokers – men	–	38.6	–	36.7	–	34.0	–	–
– women	–	30.1	–	28.9	–	28.3	–	–
Government expenditure on health (1982 $000,000)	18,058.8	18,456.1	19,564.9	20,831.2	21,672.2	22,745.3	23,846.0	24,078.1
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
– violent	592	623	648	666	685	692	714	749
– property	4,673	5,013	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560
– homicide	2.6	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programs[1] (1982 $000,000)	90,783.9	91,126.7	95,340.7	97,499.7	104,289.8	110,095.4	111,700.9	114,838.2
– as a% of total expenditures	60.4	59.3	57.7	57.3	58.1	59.9	58.4	58.4
– as a% of GNP	26.1	25.1	25.7	25.9	29.0	29.0	28.1	29.1
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,523.9	2,332.9	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	*
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,075.2	2,145.4	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,501.9	1,547.6	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3[p]
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GNP – annual % change	+3.6	+3.2	+1.1	+3.3	-4.4	+3.3	+5.0	4.5
Annual inflation rate (%)	8.8	9.2	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0
Urban housing starts	178,678	151,717	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408

* 1986 Canada population (000s) – 25,591.1

– Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March

[1] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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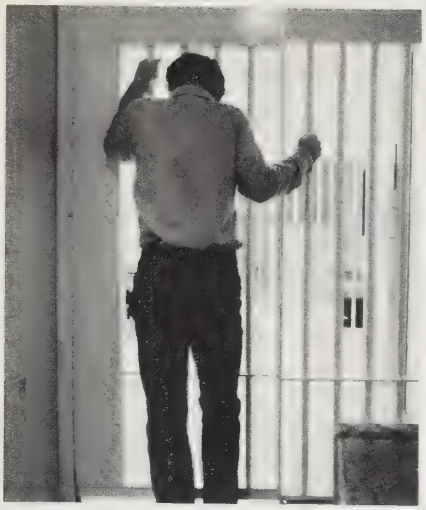
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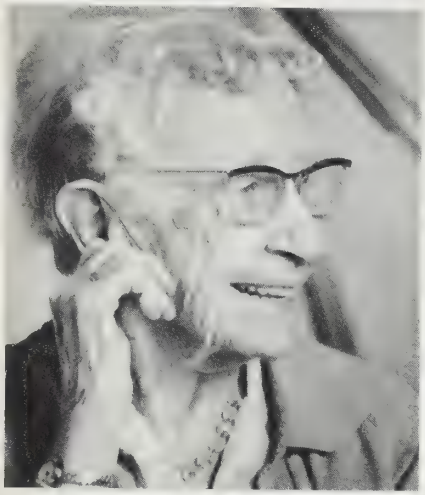
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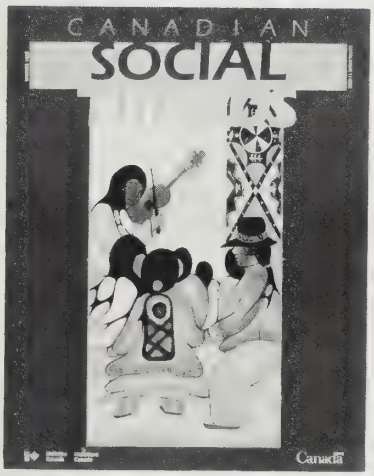
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In Memory of
Cecil Youngfox



A prominent Métis artist, Cecil Youngfox had exhibits of his work in the United States, Europe and South America. His paintings represented myths and legends, as well as contemporary issues. Mr. Youngfox died on February 24, 1987.

SOCIAL TRENDS

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ISSN 0831-5698

CANADA'S PRISON POPULATION

by Craig McKie

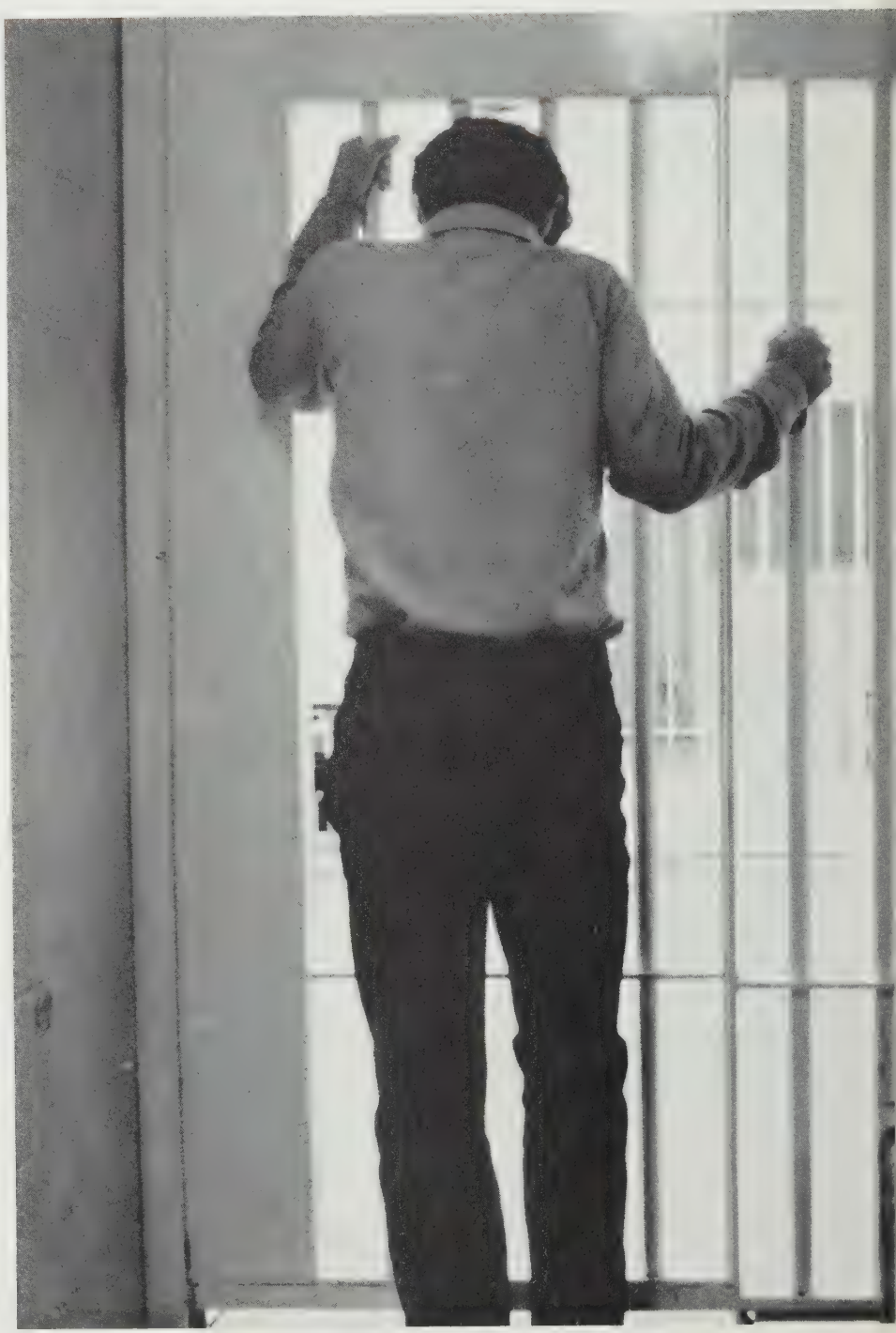
Overall, the average number of persons in federal penitentiaries and provincial prisons in Canada increased from 22,500 in 1980 to 27,600 in 1985. This increase, however, masks an underlying stability in Canadian correctional figures dating back three decades. In fact, the average number of inmates in Canadian prisons, when expressed as a rate per 100,000 adults, is now lower than in the 1960s, when the Canadian rate was thought to be one of the highest in the Western world.

In 1985, there was a total of 147 persons per 100,000 population aged 18 and over in prison in Canada. This was up from 127 in 1980, but down from an estimated 173 in 1963. The 1963 figure is based on a total of 19,900 persons reported incarcerated in end-of-year correctional statistics for that year.

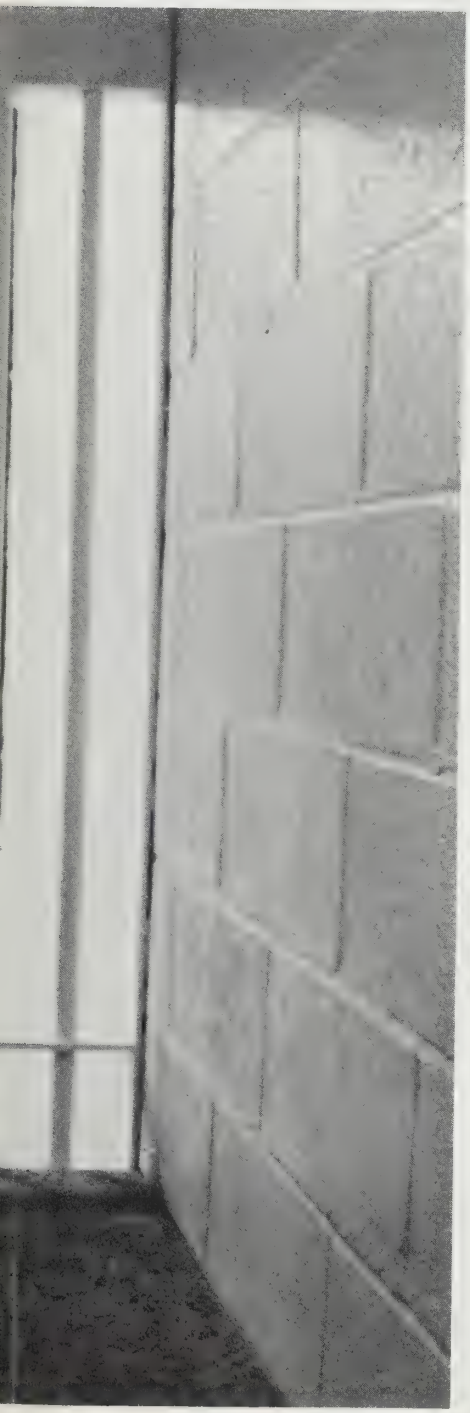
All of the increase in the rate of incarceration in the 1980s occurred between 1980 and 1982; there was no increase in the rate of incarceration between 1982 and 1985. As well, the rate of admissions to custody declined between 1982 and 1985, from 1,125 admissions per 100,000 adult population to 1,103.

Many persons convicted of criminal offences in Canada are handled through non-custodial programmes such as probation, parole, day parole and mandatory supervision. In 1985, three times as many persons were supervised under these programmes as were actually in prison. Between 1980 and 1985, there was a 16% increase in the number of persons in non-custodial supervision, lower than the 23% increase in the number of persons in custodial care.

While the total prison population in Canada has been relatively stable in recent years, there has been a shift in



the distribution of inmates being held in federal penitentiaries and provincial prisons. Between 1982 and 1985, the total penitentiary population increased by 15%; in the same period, the number of persons held in provincial institutions declined by 5%. As a result, inmates in federal penitentiaries made up 41% of all persons in prison in 1985, up from 36% in 1982. One reason for the shift in the proportion of inmates in penitentiaries, compared with provincial institutions, has been the gradual growth in the number of prisoners serving mandatory 25 year sentences for homicide.



Characteristics of Persons in Prison

By far, the vast majority of persons sent to Canadian correctional facilities are men. In 1985, women made up just 3% of those admitted to federal penitentiaries, and 7% of those admitted to provincial institutions. While women are dramatically underrepresented in the prison population, persons of native descent (as recorded by police and correctional officers) are overrepresented. Native offenders accounted for 10% of total admissions to federal custody, and 18% of those to provincial facilities in 1985.

There is considerable variation in the proportion of inmates listed as native across the country. While natives made up less than 3% of admissions to federal custody in all provinces east of the prairies in 1985, they accounted for 61% of admissions from Saskatchewan, 34% from Manitoba, 22% from Alberta and 13% from British Columbia.

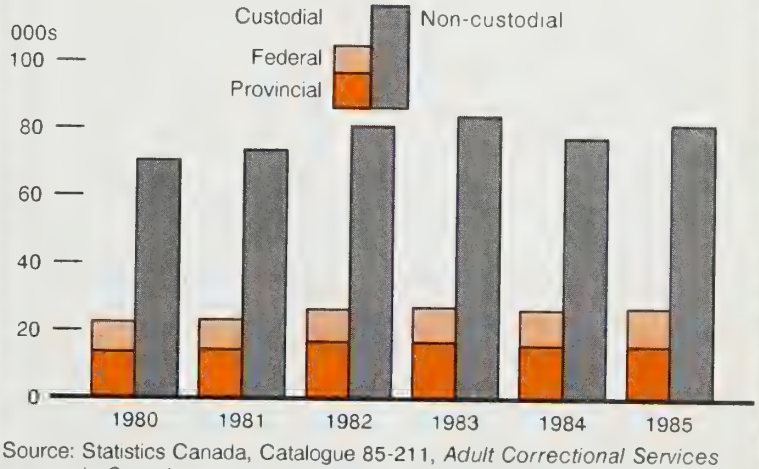
Much the same pattern occurs for sentenced admissions to provincial institutions. In 1985, 64% of those sentenced to provincial prisons in Saskatchewan were

Handling of Criminal Offenders, 1980-1985

	Average number of inmates in custody				Admissions to custody		Average non-custodial population[1]
	Provincial	Federal	Total	Total per 100,000 population aged 18 and over	Total	Total per 100,000 population aged 18 and over	
1980	13,851	8,851	22,502	127	175,658	992	70,787
1981	15,126	8,938	24,064	133	188,851	1,044	74,305
1982	17,149	9,775	26,924	146	207,505	1,125	80,912
1983	17,157	10,438	27,595	147	205,732	1,097	84,428
1984	16,242	10,857	27,099	142	199,632	1,050	78,219
1985	16,358	11,214	27,572	146	207,060	1,103	82,243

[1] Includes parole, day parole, mandatory supervision and probation.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-211, *Adult Correctional Services in Canada.*

Population in Custodial and Non-Custodial Care, 1980-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-211, *Adult Correctional Services in Canada.*

native, as were 54% of those in Manitoba, 30% in Alberta and 16% in British Columbia. On the other hand, natives made up less than 10% of those sentenced to provincial facilities in Ontario and just 4% of those in the Atlantic region.

The age of persons admitted to correctional facilities has been rising. This reflects both the aging of the population in general, and the introduction, in early 1985, of the new age provisions of the Young Offenders Act. Increasing the upper age limit for juvenile offenders to 18 has had the effect of raising the average age of persons admitted to adult institutions. This effect was more pronounced in the provincial systems, since historically, there have been few persons under the age of 18 admitted to federal facilities. The median age of sentenced prisoners admitted to provincial custody in 1985 was 27 years of age, up from 26 the year before. In the same period, the median age of suspects on remand increased from 25 to 30 years.

Inmates in Federal Penitentiaries

Most inmates in federal penitentiaries committed violent offences. In 1985, 61% of all inmates in federal facilities were serving time for either homicide (19%), other violent offences against individuals (16%), or robbery (26%). Overall, the percentage of inmates sent to penitentiary for violent offences was the same in 1985 as it was in 1980. There was, however, a 4 percentage point increase in the proportion of inmates sent to penitentiary for other violent offences against individuals, and a 4 percentage point decline in the proportion convicted of robbery. Compared with 1980, there was no change in the percentage of inmates sent to penitentiary for homicide.

In 1985, 25% of federal inmates were convicted for property crimes, mostly breaking and entering. Persons convicted of offences against the Narcotic Control and Food and Drug Acts (6%), and other criminal code offences (9%) made up the remainder of the federal penitentiary population in 1985.

Imprisonment Trends in the United States

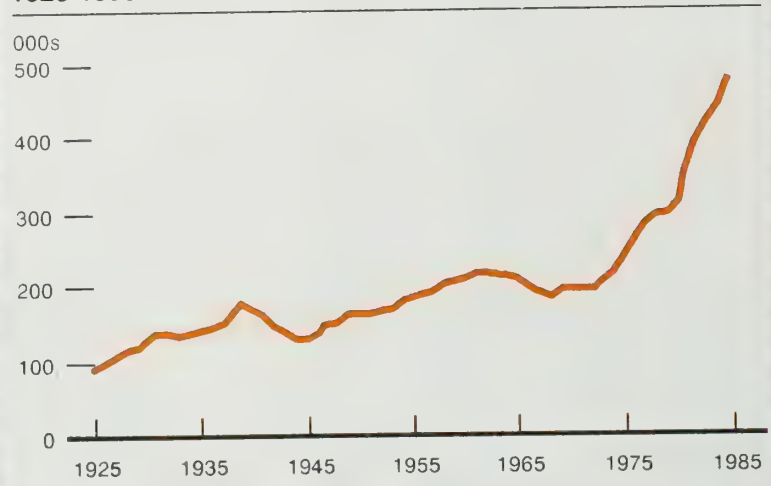
While the Canadian rate of incarceration is now lower than it was twenty years ago, and is growing slowly if at all, the number of persons in prison in the United States has increased dramatically in recent years. As a result, levels of incarceration in the United States now exceed those in Canada by a wide margin. Direct comparisons between Canadian and American rates of incarceration, however, should be made with caution. There are major differences in the way inmates are counted in each country. As well, there are dissimilarities in the two criminal justice systems, for example, in the way juvenile offenders are handled.

In 1985, about half a million residents of the United States – or 201 for every 100,000 Americans – were in prison under sentence. In comparison, there were only 95 inmates under sentence per 100,000 population in Canada the same year. As well, overcrowding of prison facilities has reached crisis proportions in some U.S. jurisdictions, whereas in Canada, there are few reports of overcrowding.

Historical figures indicate that the acceleration of the rate of incarceration in the United States in the last decade is unprecedented. The American prison population grew at an average annual rate of 2.8% in the period 1925-1985, about twice as fast as the overall population grew. In the period 1974-1985, though, the U.S. prison population grew at an average rate of 7.4% per year. As a result, the prison population in the United States more than doubled in this period. As well, between 1982 and 1985, a period in which the Canadian prison population stayed virtually the same, the sentenced prison population in the United States grew by 86,100 or 22%.

The difference between the growth rates of Canadian and American prison populations may be partly explained by differences in sentencing practices in the two countries. Over the last decade, many American states have introduced definite sentencing, including mandatory and minimum prison terms, and sentencing "guidelines". There have been few such changes in Canada, although the new Young Offenders Act has introduced definite sentencing for young persons.

Total Sentenced Prisoners in the United States, 1925-1985



Source: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics.

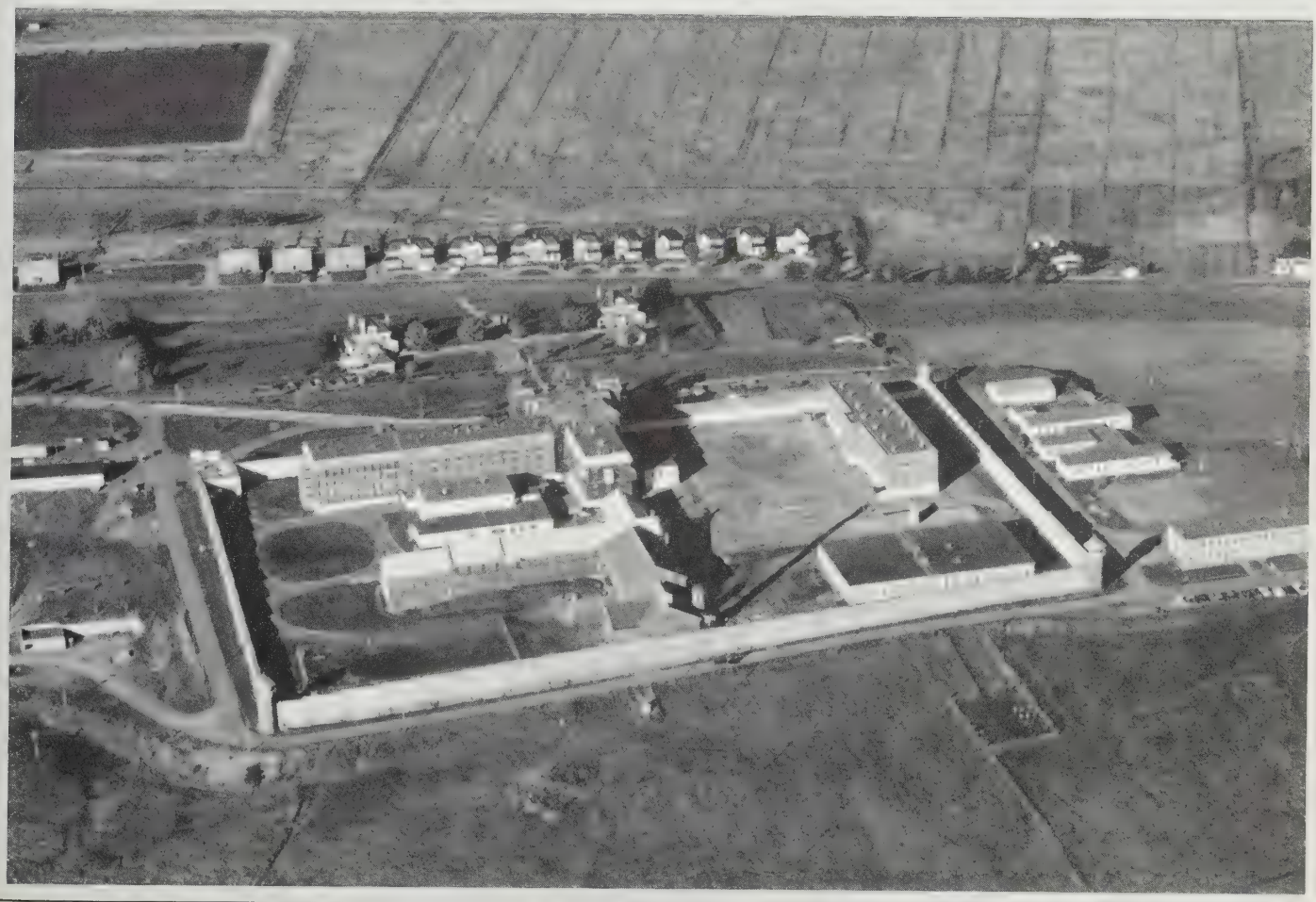
Corrections in Canada

The provision of adult correctional services in Canada is a responsibility shared between the federal and provincial governments. Generally, offenders sentenced to less than two years imprisonment are sent to provincial prisons; those sentenced to longer terms are confined in federal penitentiaries. There is, however, some flexibility in this arrangement. After being convicted, federal prisoners are normally held in provincial institutions for a 30 day appeal period prior to being transferred. Additionally, inmates can be transferred between jurisdictions under exchange of service agreements which exist between the federal government and all provinces except Ontario and Prince Edward Island. As a result of these exchanges, some double counting of inmates is possible.

While the corrections caseload discussed in this article refers only to inmates in federal or provincial correctional facilities, municipal governments in some provinces also share responsibility for the delivery of custodial services. These services consist mainly of providing temporary lock-up and/or remand services. In addition, until 1986, municipalities in Nova Scotia had responsibility for the entire provincial corrections caseload.

The growth of non-custodial correctional services such as probation, parole, day parole, and mandatory supervision in the last 20 years is a major part of the explanation why Canadian incarceration rates have declined from historic highs. The manner in which these forms of community supervision are arranged, though, differs from province to province. For example, provincial systems differ in the number of agencies assigned responsibility for corrections. The Parole Act was amended in 1978 to allow for provincial Boards of Parole. Subsequently, such Boards were formed in Quebec, Ontario, and British Columbia. These Boards have responsibility for the conditional release of inmates serving provincial sentences within their respective jurisdictions. The National Parole Board has authority over federal prisoners, as well as inmates in provinces and territories without provincial Boards. Some services may also be performed by local social service departments in remote areas lacking in parole and probation agencies.

In recent years, private, non-custodial correctional alternatives have evolved to varying degrees across Canada. Many of these programmes provide supervision as a condition of parole, and in some cases dormitory services, for convicts released to their care. Inmates can also be transferred to community-based facilities to allow access to local resources and programmes. This has an impact on inmate counts in regular custodial facilities. As the distinction between incarceration and community supervision has blurred, the actual count of inmates in provincial and federal institutions has become a progressively less useful indicator of how many Canadians are caught up in the criminal legal process.



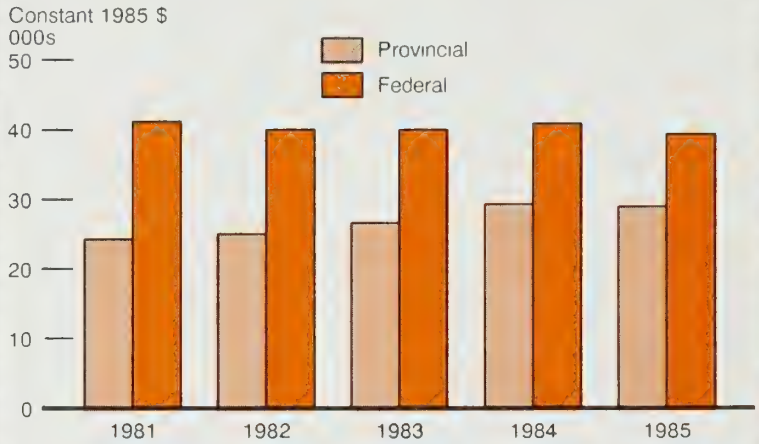
Costs of Canada's Prison System

In 1985, total federal and provincial expenditure on adult corrections was just under $1.4 billion. This was up from $1 billion (in constant 1985 dollars) in 1981, but down slightly from the 1984 total. As well, total expenditure on corrections dropped from 0.7% of all government expenditure in 1984 to 0.6% in 1985. In per capita terms (in constant 1985 dollars), the total costs of the prison system declined from $54.72 per person in Canada in 1984 to $53.89 in 1985. These figures, however, were up from $41.34 in 1981.

There is a considerable difference between the cost of keeping an inmate in a federal penitentiary compared with a provincial prison. In 1985, the average annual cost of keeping an inmate in a federal institution was $39,600 compared with $29,100 for provincial facilities. The gap between the average costs in federal and provincial correctional facilities, however, has been closing in the 1980s. The average annual cost per inmate in federal facilities in 1985 had declined from $41,300 in 1981, while costs in the provincial system had increased from $24,700 in 1981.

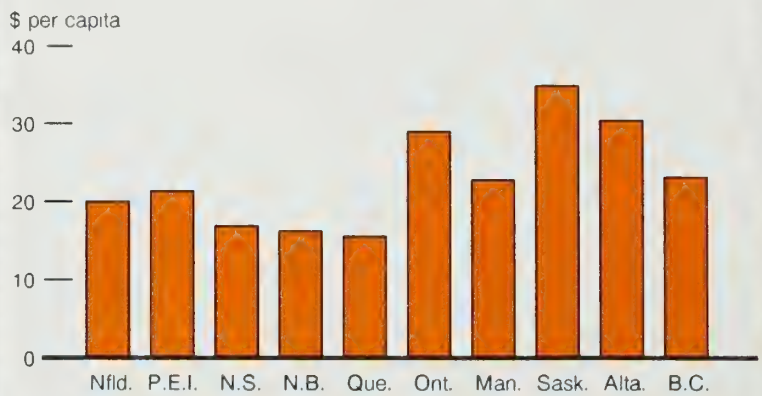
There are considerable provincial differences in the levels of expenditure on corrections. Generally, expenditure on corrections rise from east to west in Canada. In 1985, per capita expenditure on corrections ranged from $20 or less per person in Quebec ($15.82 – the lowest in Canada), New Brunswick ($16.33), Nova Scotia ($17.01), and Newfoundland ($20.03), to over $30 per person in Saskatchewan ($34.95 – the highest in Canada) and Alberta ($30.45). Provincial spending on corrections ranged a high of 0.8% of total government expenditure in Saskatchewan to 0.3% in Quebec.

Average Annual Cost Per Inmate in Federal and Provincial Institutions, 1981-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-211, *Adult Correctional Services in Canada.*

Total Per Capita Expenditure of Provincial Agencies Responsible for Adult Corrections, 1985-86



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-211, *Adult Correctional Services in Canada.*

Inmates in Provincial Prisons

The majority of persons sent to provincial institutions are there for short sentences. In 1985, just under half of all sentenced admissions to provincial custody were for less than 30 days, and 35% were for less than 15 days.

Two of the most common reasons for admission to provincial institutions are defaulting on fines and drinking and driving offences. Fine defaulters accounted for almost one-third (32%) of all admissions to provincial facilities in 1985. Drinking and driving offences, which include refusing a breathalyzer test, accounted for 17% of all admissions to provincial institutions. Note, however, that these two categories

are not mutually exclusive: individuals who defaulted on a fine for a drinking and driving offence may be included in both categories.

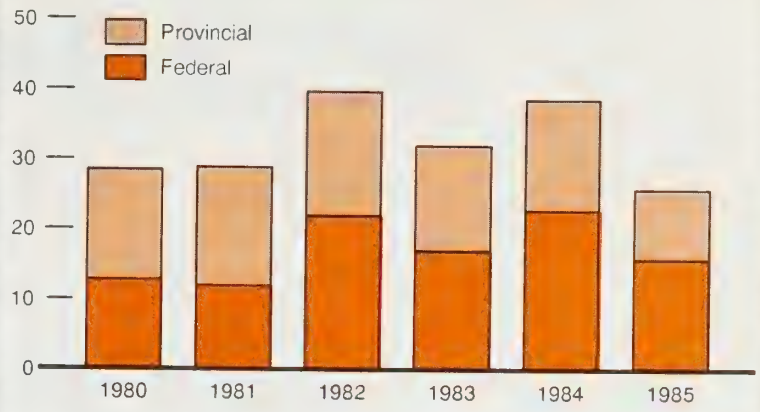
Prison Conditions

Relatively little can be said in a statistical sense about conditions in Canadians prisons. In general, penal institutions in Canada are operating at, or near, full capacity. In 1985, the average inmate count in federal penitentiaries was 95% of the total rated capacity of these institutions, while the average population in provincial institutions represented 94% of their operational capacity. Due to seasonal fluctuations, however, there may have been occasions when normal operating capacity was exceeded at certain institutions, resulting in overcrowding.

The possibility of overcrowding in federal penitentiaries may be further understated by the fact that in 1985, close to 20% of the listed capacity of these institutions was made up of special purpose beds such as those for punishment isolation and health care. When special purpose beds were not counted, the yearly count of inmates in federal penitentiaries represented 116% of the normal operational capacity of these institutions in 1985.

One indicator of the internal conditions in Canadian prisons is the number of suicides and murders of prisoners. In 1985, there were 16 federal prisoner deaths by suicide and 4 by murder. There were 10 deaths by suicide and none by murder in the provincial systems. While such deaths outnumber those from natural causes, and rates of violent death in prison are much higher than in the general population, there has been little increase in the incidence of suicide or murder in prisons in the 1980s. In the U.S. federal prison system in 1983, the last year for which numbers are available, there were 354 deaths from non-natural causes, including 294 suicides.[1]

Inmate Suicides in Federal and Provincial Custody, 1980-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-211, *Adult Correctional Services in Canada.*

In 1985, there were 1,800 persons unlawfully at large from provincial facilities and 327 from federal institutions. Of the latter, 35 had escaped from medium and maximum security institutions, 150 had failed to return from temporary absences, and 142 had walked away with no breach of a perimeter fence.

The temporary absence programme has included large numbers of inmates and has experienced a high degree of compliance. In 1985, only 101 of 14,066 unescorted temporary absences were not completed. A further 42,735 escorted temporary absences were permitted, of which only 27 were not completed.

■ ■ ■

Taken together, these various measures of corrections in Canada do not portray a correctional system under great stress as is often said to be the case in the United States. Indeed, on most measures the Canadian correctional system achieved a high degree of stability during a period in which the large baby boom generation was passing through its most crime prone years. Now, as the population ages, and as the average age of offenders admitted to custody rises, there is little reason to believe, barring important changes to the criminal law, that a dramatic change in the prison population will take place in the near future.



[1] Data obtained from Source Book of Criminal Justice Statistics – 1984, Washington: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1985.

Craig McKie *is Editor of Canadian Social Trends.*

LEGAL AID IN CANADA

by May Sadkowski and Judith Whitehead

Legal aid is now recognized as an integral part of the Canadian justice system. It extends professional legal representation for criminal and civil matters to persons in financial need. Legal aid began as a voluntary service provided by the legal profession, but since the early 1970s, it has been one of the many services to which federal and provincial governments contribute.

Approved Legal Aid Applications

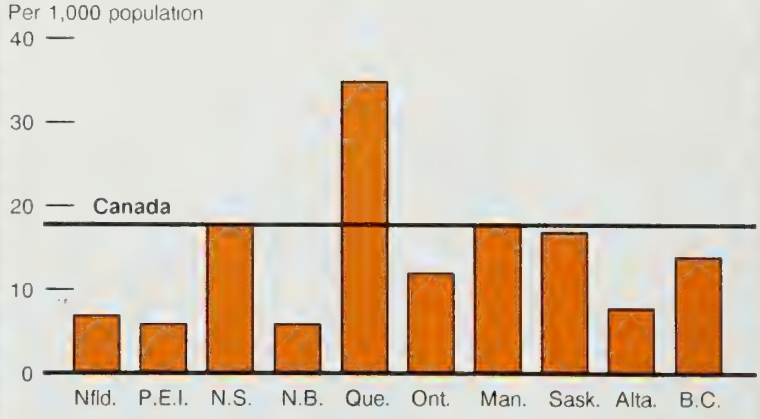
While the number of approved applications for legal aid in Canada increased from 437,000 in 1981-82 to 460,000 in 1984-85, there was no change in approved applications per 1,000 population in this period. There were 18 approved applications for legal aid per 1,000 population in both 1981-82 and 1984-85.

Quebec had, by far, the highest incidence of approved legal aid applications of any province. In 1984-85, there were 35 approved applications per 1,000 persons in Quebec. The next highest rates were 18 in Manitoba and Nova Scotia, and 17 in Saskatchewan. The lowest rates for approved applications, between 6 and 7 per 1,000 population, occurred in the other Atlantic provinces.

Civil matters accounted for 54% of the total approved applications in 1984-85. The remaining 46% was related to criminal cases. This ratio was virtually unchanged from 1981-82. There is, however, considerable variation in the proportion of legal aid cases related to criminal versus civil matters across the country. The percentage of approved applications involving criminal cases, for example, ranged from 80% in Alberta to 35% in Quebec in 1984-85.



Approved Legal Aid Applications Per 1,000 Population, by Province, 1984-85



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-216, *Legal Aid in Canada*.

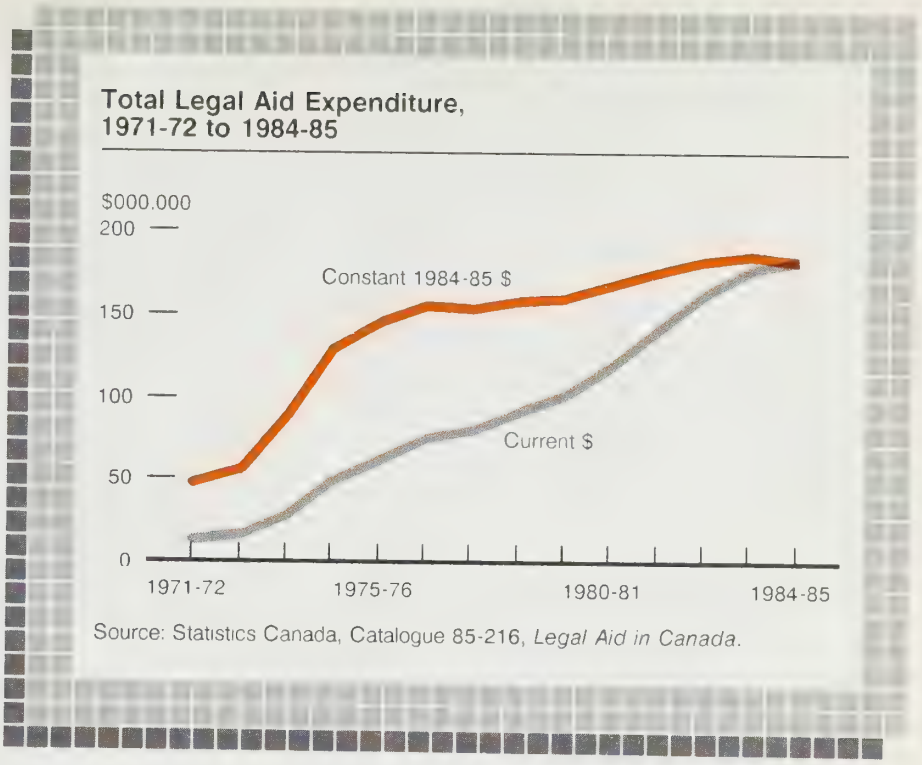
Expenditure on Legal Aid in Canada

Total legal aid expenditure, in constant 1984-85 dollars, increased from $47 million in 1971-72 to $182 million in 1984-85. On a per capita basis, this represented an increase of from $2.17 per person to $7.22.

Most of the overall increase in legal aid expenditure, however, occurred in the early part of the 1970s, when the programme was in its infancy. Between 1971-72 and 1976-77, total per capita legal aid expenditure more than tripled from $2.17 to $6.69. In comparison, in the period 1976-77 to 1983-84, per capita expenditure on legal aid increased by only 11%. In 1984-85, per capita expenditure on legal aid services declined by 3%.

Quebec, Ontario and Manitoba are the provinces characterized by the highest per capita expenditure on legal aid. In Quebec, it was just over $9 per person in 1984-85, while, in Ontario and Manitoba, the figure was just under $8 per person. In comparison, expenditure on legal aid services in the Atlantic provinces ranged from just over $4 per person in Nova Scotia to less than $2 per person in Prince Edward Island.

All provinces shared in the rapid increase in legal aid expenditure in



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-216, *Legal Aid in Canada*.

Legal Aid and the Justice System in Canada

Legal aid in Canada originated as a charitable service provided by the legal profession. Since the early 1970s, though, the federal and provincial governments have been heavily involved in funding legal aid; and by the mid- 1970s, all of the provinces, including the two territories, had publicly funded legal aid plans. While many characteristics differentiate the 12 legal aid plans, there is conformity among the plans in certain fundamental aspects. These similarities indicate a shared understanding regarding entitlement to legal aid. The common goal of all legal aid plans is to ensure that those in need are not denied professional legal assistance because they cannot afford to hire a lawyer.

The actual administration of legal aid services is primarily a provincial responsibility, although it is subject to conditions outlined in federal-provincial cost-sharing agreements. Every province, except Prince Edward Island, has a non-government, administrative body which regulates legal aid services and reports to a provincial minister, usually the Attorney General. Issues particular to each province have shaped the organization and policies of the respective plans.

There are three types of legal aid delivery systems in Canada. These differ primarily in the degree of reliance on lawyers in private practice. The three systems are the judicare system, which delivers services solely through private law firms on a fee-for-service basis; the staff system, which uses lawyers employed directly by the plan, although under certain conditions private counsel may be retained; and the combined system, which provides services of both private and staff lawyers. Ontario, Quebec, British Columbia, Manitoba and Newfoundland have combined systems; Alberta, New Brunswick and the two territories operate judicare systems; and Saskatchewan, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island have staff systems.

Each legal aid plan receives revenue from the provincial and federal governments. The federal Department of Justice shares the cost of legal aid for criminal matters, while some civil funding, primarily for cases involving family matters, is supplied by Health and Welfare Canada under the Canada Assistance Plan.

Under federal-provincial cost-sharing agreements, legal aid is available for all financially eligible adults charged with federal indictable offences. Similar agreements extend coverage to youthful offenders. Coverage for persons charged with summary offences, usually less serious charges, is at the discretion of plan administrators.

All provincial legal aid plans allow for the screening of potential clients. The most important criterion is financial need. Each plan has its own financial eligibility criteria based on income, assets, and family size. Generally, people qualify for legal aid if they cannot retain a lawyer without sacrificing real property or necessities for themselves or their families. Each province can also require repayment from a client if money is recovered in a civil case.

the early 1970s. Although expenditure continued to rise in most provinces between 1976-77 and 1984-85, these increases were much lower than in the early 1970s. The largest increases in per capita legal aid expenditure (in constant dollars) in the 1976-77 to 1984-85 period occurred in Newfoundland (up 64%), Nova Scotia (up 41%) and Alberta (up 28%). On the other hand, per capita legal aid expenditure declined by 8% in British Columbia and 4% in Saskatchewan between the 1976-77 and 1984-85 fiscal years.

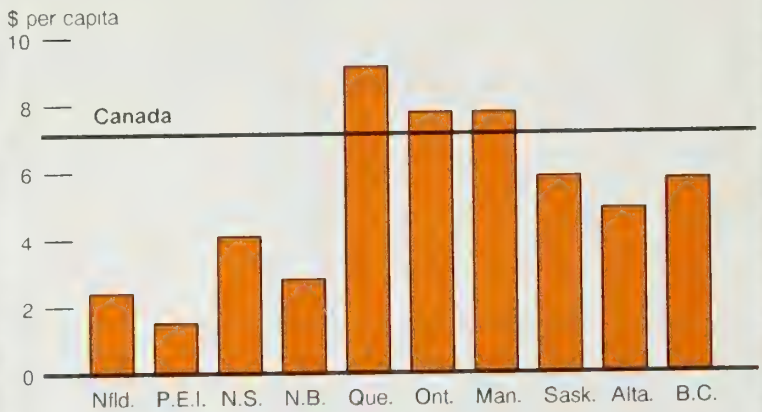
The Funding of Legal Aid in Canada

Government is the major source of funds for legal aid. In 1984-85, federal and provincial governments contributed 90% of the $191 million received by legal aid plans in Canada. The share of legal aid funds provided by government has been stable at this level since the mid-1970s.

Most of the remaining 10% of total legal aid plan revenue comes from interest from lawyers' trust accounts (6% in 1984-85), and client contributions and cost recoveries (3%). The shares of total legal aid revenue derived from these two sources have also been relatively stable in the last decade.

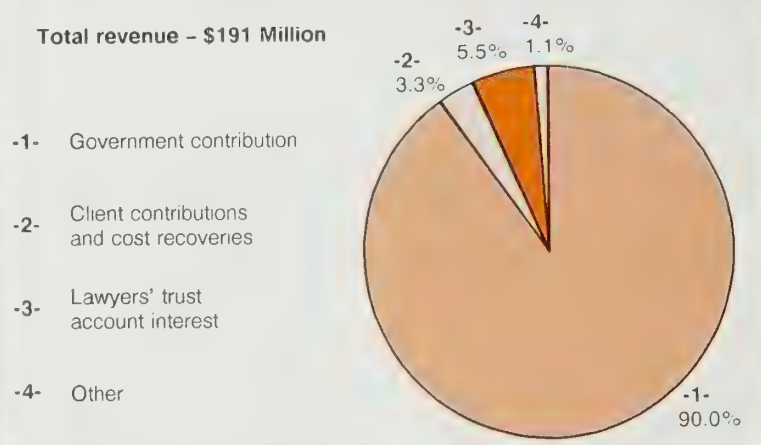
The proportion of total legal aid plan revenue provided by client contributions and cost recoveries, however, varies by province. This share ranged from 6% in Alberta and Ontario to nil in Prince Edward Island in 1984-85.

Per Capita Legal Aid Expenditure, by Province, 1984-85



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-216, *Legal Aid in Canada*.

Legal Aid Revenue, by Source, 1984-85



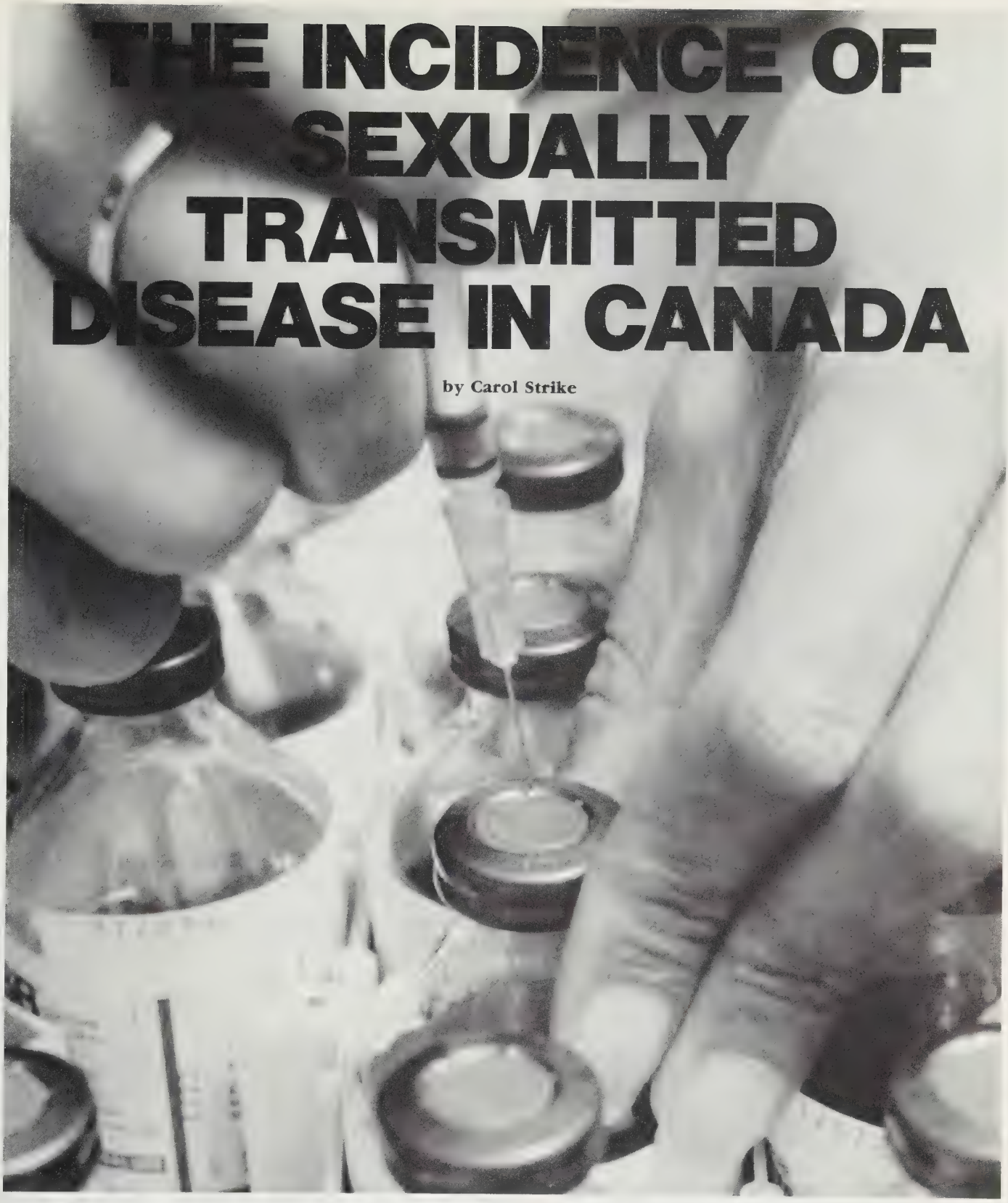
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-216, *Legal Aid in Canada*.



May Sadkowski *and* **Judith Whitehead** *are staff writers with Canadian Social Trends.*

THE INCIDENCE OF SEXUALLY TRANSMITTED DISEASE IN CANADA

by Carol Strike



Sexually transmitted disease continues to be a major social concern in Canada. Although the incidence of gonorrhea and syphilis has declined, the prevalence of other sexually transmitted diseases has increased dramatically. AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) is the most serious of these newer diseases in that there is currently no cure and it is invariably fatal. The incidence of two non-life threatening sexually transmitted diseases, herpes and chlamydia, has also increased considerably in the 1980s.

The diagnosis, treatment, control and prevention of these increasingly more prevalent, sexually transmissible infections represents a formidable challenge for the health care disciplines, as well as for those involved in health education and promotion. Each sexually transmitted disease represents a distinct threat.

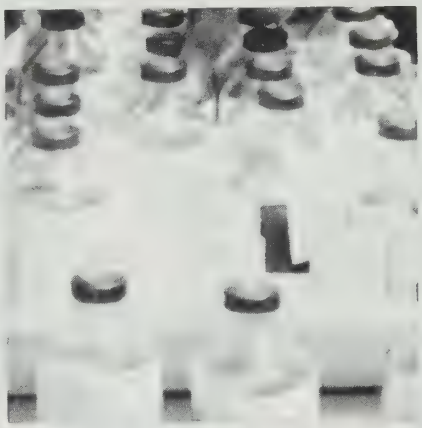
Sexually Transmitted Diseases

Sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) are transmitted through sexual contact with those infected with the condition. Although all STDs are passed in this manner, some may also be transmitted by other means such as sharing hypodermic needles, blood transfusions, and from a mother to an unborn child.

None of the STDs is gender specific, although some individuals are at higher risk of contracting one of these diseases because of their sex and sexual orientation.

AIDS, gonorrhea and syphilis are classified as notifiable diseases, that is, occurrences of these diseases must be reported to public health officials. Herpes and chlamydial infections are not notifiable diseases, and therefore the total number of cases reported is understated to some extent.

AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome) causes a weakening of the body's ability to fight disease. People who contract AIDS become susceptible to other infections, to which healthy people are virtually immune. The impaired immune system of the AIDS victim, however,cannot fight off these infections. Individuals can be carriers of the AIDS virus without developing the disease. It is not known, though, if, or when, these people will actually develop AIDS.



Herpes is a virus which results in skin eruptions in the genital area and other places on the body. While the virus remains with the infected person for life, the severity of the problem may vary over time. The condition is particularly prone to flareups when the body's resistence is weakened. Some victims experience numerous flareups, while others have only occasional bouts.

Chlamydia is a bacteria-like organism which causes a urethral discharge in men. Chlamydial infections in women often have no symptoms. However, this condition can result in pelvic inflammatory disease (PID), tubal pregnancies and infertility.

Gonorrhea is a bacterial disease which causes urethral discharge in men. As with chlamydia, women often do not experience overt symptoms, although gonorrhea can lead to PID and damage to the reproductive organs. Recently, several strains of gonorrhea resistant to tetracycline have emerged, making the control of this disease more difficult.

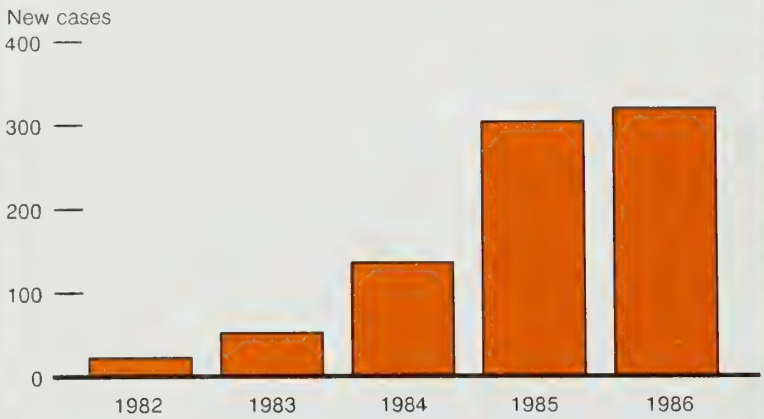
Syphilis is a bacterial disease which results in a painless sore at the point where the bacteria enters the body. Without treatment, the sore will eventually disappear, although the infection remains with the victim. If not treated with antibiotics, the condition is potentially fatal.

AIDS

The first AIDS case in Canada was reported in 1979, and through 1986, a total of 847 cases of AIDS had been reported. Of the total number of cases reported, 438 (or 52%) had resulted in death by the end of 1986. There was a particularly large increase in the number of cases reported in 1985. In that year, 305 new cases of AIDS were reported, a 120% increase from the number of new cases reported in 1984. The number of new cases (320) reported in 1986, however, was only 5% more than the number reported in 1985. As of May 18, 1987, 1,012 cases of AIDS had been reported in Canada; of these, 512 had resulted in death.

Most AIDS victims have been adult males. Men accounted for 93% of all cases up to the end of the 1986; adult women made up only 5% of the total, and children just 2%.

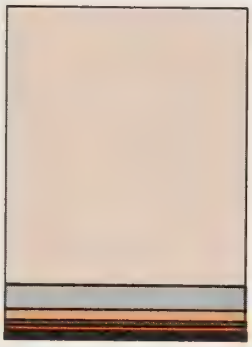
Number of New Cases[1] of AIDS, 1982-1986



[1] Number of cases in 1979, 1980 and 1981 were 1,3, and 5 respectively.

Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control.

Distribution of Total Victims of AIDS by Risk Group



82.0%	Homosexual or bisexual men
7.0%	Persons from endemic areas
4.0%	Recipients of blood products
2.0%	Heterosexual partners
2.0%	Pediatric cases
2.6%	Other or unknown

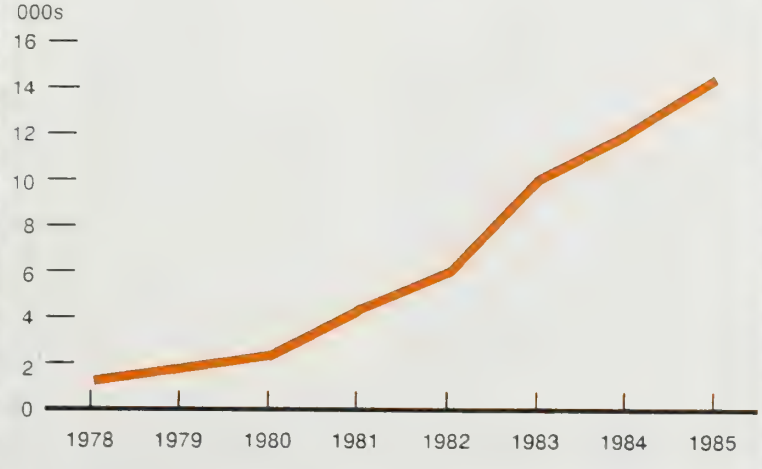
Note: Intravenous drug abusers accounted for 0.4% of total victims.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control.

As well, most victims have been homosexual or bisexual men; this group accounted for 82% of the total number of cases through 1986. Other victims of this condition include persons from endemic or high risks areas such as Haiti (7%), recipients of blood or blood products (4%), heterosexual partners of persons in high-risk groups (2%), babies with high-risk parents (2%), and intravenous drug users (0.4%).

British Columbia has by far the highest incidence of AIDS in Canada. In 1986, there were 3.0 cases of AIDS per 100,000 population in British Columbia. This was over twice the next highest rate of 1.3 cases per 100,000 population reported in Ontario. Quebec was the only other region with at least one case of AIDS per 100,000 population. The lowest rate was in the Atlantic provinces – just 0.3 cases per 100,000 persons in 1986.

Although the current total of active cases of AIDS is low in comparison with other life-threatening illnesses, the number of Canadians known to be harbouring the virus in a latent state is much higher. Further unchecked spread of the virus is thus a major cause for concern.

Laboratory Reported Cases of Herpes, 1978-1985



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control.

Herpes

In 1985, there were 14,600 laboratory reports of herpes, 20% more than in 1984. Since 1978, there has been a tenfold increase in the number of laboratory reports of herpes.

The highest incidence of herpes occurs among the population aged 20-29. Persons in this age range accounted for almost half of all laboratory reports of herpes in 1985. The largest increase in the number of laboratory reports of herpes in 1985, though, occurred among persons aged 35-44. Women, especially younger women, experience a higher reported incidence of herpes than men. In 1985, almost two-thirds (64%) of all reports of herpes involved women. At the same time, women aged 15-19 had a rate almost five times that of men in the same age range.

Chlamydia

As with AIDS and herpes, the incidence of chlamydia has escalated dramatically in recent years. In 1985, there were 7,900 laboratory reports of chlamydia. This was twice the number of cases reported in 1984, and 5 times more than in 1983.

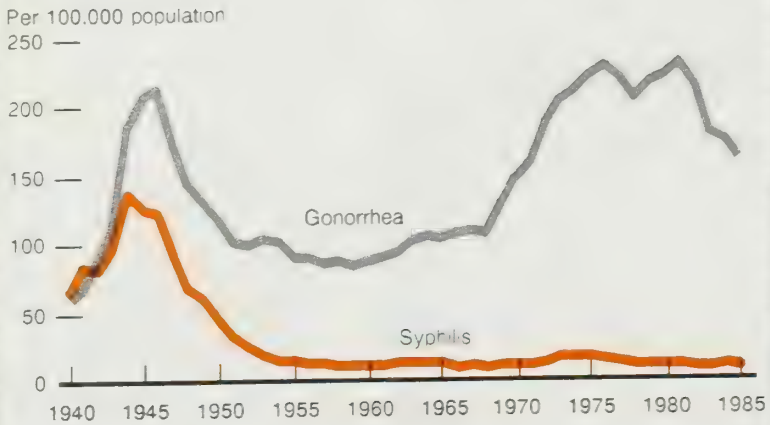
The vast majority of chlamydial infections occur to persons aged 15-29. As well, women experience higher rates of chlamydial infections than men. Women aged 20-29, for example, had a rate twice that of their male counterparts in 1985. For women aged 15-19, the number of laboratory reports of chlamydial infections was six times greater than that for men of the same age.

Gonorrhea

The incidence of gonorrhea has declined in Canada in the 1980s. Still, almost 41,000 cases of gonorrhea – a rate of 161 cases per 100,000 population – were reported in 1985. The 1985 rate, however, was 8% lower than in 1984, and 30% lower than in 1980. The decline in the incidence of gonorrhea in 1985 was greater among men



Reported Cases of Gonorrhea and Syphilis per 100,000 Population, 1940-1985



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Laboratory Centre for Disease Control.

(down 11%) than women (down 4%). Men over age 20, however, had rates of gonorrhea twice that of women in the same age range. On the other hand, women aged 15-19, had a rate almost twice that of their male counterparts.

Gonorrhea is more common in the western provinces than in the east. In 1985, the number of cases of gonorrhea in the western provinces ranged from 298 per 100,000 population in Manitoba to 170 in British Columbia. Rates in the eastern provinces ranged from 164 in Ontario to 39 in Prince Edward Island.

Syphilis

The incidence of syphilis, once the most serious sexually transmitted disease, has been very low in Canada since the mid-1950s. Over this period, the number of cases of syphilis per 100,000 population fluctuated between 10 and 17. In 1985, 2,607 cases of syphilis were reported in Canada;this was 10.3 cases per 100,000 persons, down from 12.2 a year earlier.

Ontario and Alberta had the highest provincial rates of syphilis in 1985: there were 12.7 cases per 100,000 population in Ontario and 12.5 in Alberta. The Alberta figure, however, was just one-half that recorded in 1984. High rates of syphilis were also reported in British Columbia (10.8 cases per 100,000 population), Quebec (10.7), and Manitoba, (9.6). No other province had more than 2 cases per 100,000 persons.

Carol Strike *is a staff writer with Canadian Social Trends.*

INCREASED LIFE EXPECTANCY, 1921 TO 1981

by Jo-Anne Parliament



As in many developed countries, there has been a gradual decline in mortality rates in Canada over the past several decades. The improvement in mortality has occurred in all age groups, but particularly in the younger ones. Recently, though, there has also been a marked improvement in mortality among older age groups, especially older women.

The improvements in mortality have been accompanied by shifts in the distribution of the leading causes of death in Canada. While cardiovascular disease is the number one cause of death in Canada, deaths due to cardiovascular disease have declined as a percentage of all deaths in recent years. The percentage of deaths due to cancer, on the other hand, has increased. Some other diseases, such as tuberculosis, which were major causes of death in the past, are now rare as a cause of death.

Declining Death Rates

Age-standardized death rates have declined for both sexes, but particularly for women, over the past six decades. Between 1921 and 1981, the death rate among women dropped 65%, from 12.4 deaths per 1,000 female population to 4.3. For men, this rate declined 46%, from 13.3 deaths per 1,000 male population in 1921 to 7.2 in 1981.

Increased Life Expectancy

Women experienced greater increases in life expectancy than men in the last six decades, though there were improvements for both sexes. Between 1921 and 1981, life expectancy at birth increased by over 18 years for women, and by 13 years for men. Consequently, the life expectancy of girls born in 1981 (79 years) was seven years longer than that of boys born the same year. The gap between the life expectancy of men and women is most pronounced at birth. It subsequently declines with age such that at age 90 the difference is less than one year. More of the increases in life expectancy of both men and women occurred in the 1921-1951 period than in the 1951-1981 period.

Life expectancies at birth have tended to be lower than the national average for both men and women in

Contribution of Increases in Life Expectancy in Each Age Group to the Total Increase in Life Expectancy at Birth, 1921-1951 and 1951-1981

	Men		Women	
	1921-1951	1951-1981	1921-1951	1951-1981
	%			
Under 1	44.8	41.5	27.8	24.6
1-4	17.6	7.3	12.7	4.6
5-24	21.7	7.3	20.0	5.9
25-44	15.1	9.5	20.2	9.6
45-64	– 1.2	19.1	10.9	18.7
65 and over	2.0	15.2	8.4	36.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total increase in life expectancy (in years)	7.6	5.5	10.3	8.1

Source: Nagnur, D., "Rectangularization of the Survival Curve and Entropy, the Canadian Experience, 1921-1981", *Canadian Studies in Population*, Vol. 13, No. 1, 1986.

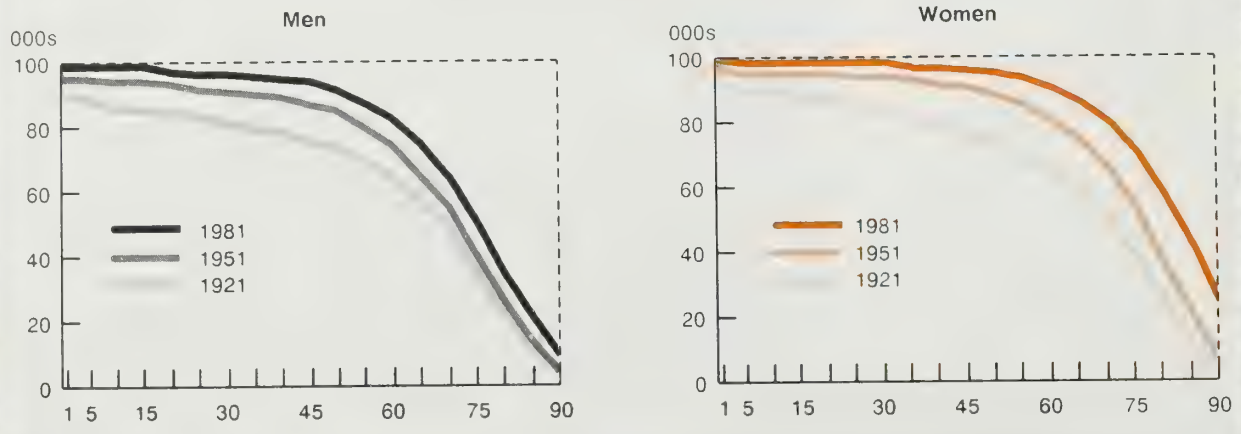
Rectangularization of the Survival Curve

Between 1921 and 1981, there was a significant increase in the probability of survival in general, and of survival to successively older ages in particular. Because of this, survival curves, which show the number of survivors at different ages out of an initial cohort of 100,000 live births, have gradually flattened to form a more rectangular shape, hence the use of the term rectangularization.

The increase in the rectangularization of the survival curve was greater in the last three decades of the 1921-1981 period than in the first three. In 1981, the probability of survival was much greater for women than it was for men. As well, this difference was greater in 1981 than it had been in 1951; in 1921, there had been almost no difference.

The gap between the real and ideal (where theoretically everyone dies at about age 90) survival curves has narrowed significantly in recent years in Canada, as it has in many developed countries. In the United States, for example, 80% of the difference between the real curve, as it existed in 1900, and the ideal curve had been eliminated by 1980.

Number of Persons Out of an Initial Cohort of 100,000 Live Births Surviving to Different Ages, 1921, 1951 and 1981



Source: Nagnur, D., *Longevity and Historical Life Tables, 1921-1981, Canada and the Provinces*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-506.

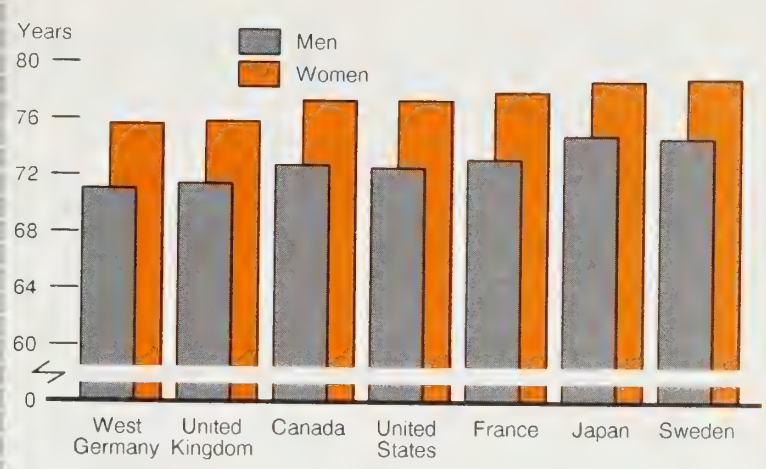
Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and among men in Newfoundland. Ontario and the western provinces – Saskatchewan in particular – have generally had higher life expectancies than the national average. However, since 1931, life expectancies among all provinces have been converging. This holds for both men and women. In 1931, the difference in life expectancy at birth between the province with the highest life expectancy (Saskatchewan) and that with the lowest (New Brunswick) was 8 years for both men and women; by 1981, these gaps had closed to 2 years. As well, these gaps are expected to narrow still further in the future.

Reasons for Increased Life Expectancy

The main factor contributing to increased life expectancy in Canada between 1921 and 1981 was the reduction in infant mortality (deaths of children under age 1). In 1981, less than 1 baby in 100 died before its first birthday; in 1921, the ratio was almost 1 in 10. The decline in infant mortality made a greater difference to the overall increase in the life expectancy of men than that of women. Between 1921 and 1981, the reduction in infant mortality accounted for 43% of the increase in life expectancy at birth for men, compared to 26% of that for women.

Improvements in mortality among older age groups contributed more to the total increase in life expectancy at birth for both sexes during the second half of the 1921-

Life Expectancy in Selected Countries, 1981



Source: The World Bank, *World Tables*, Third Edition, Vol. II – Social Data, 1984.

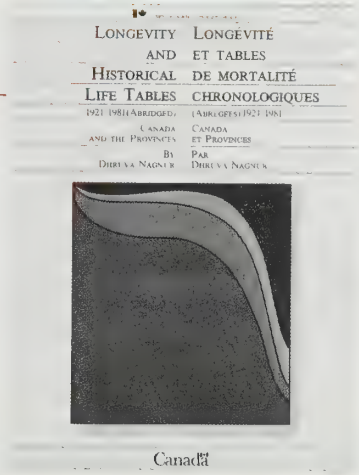
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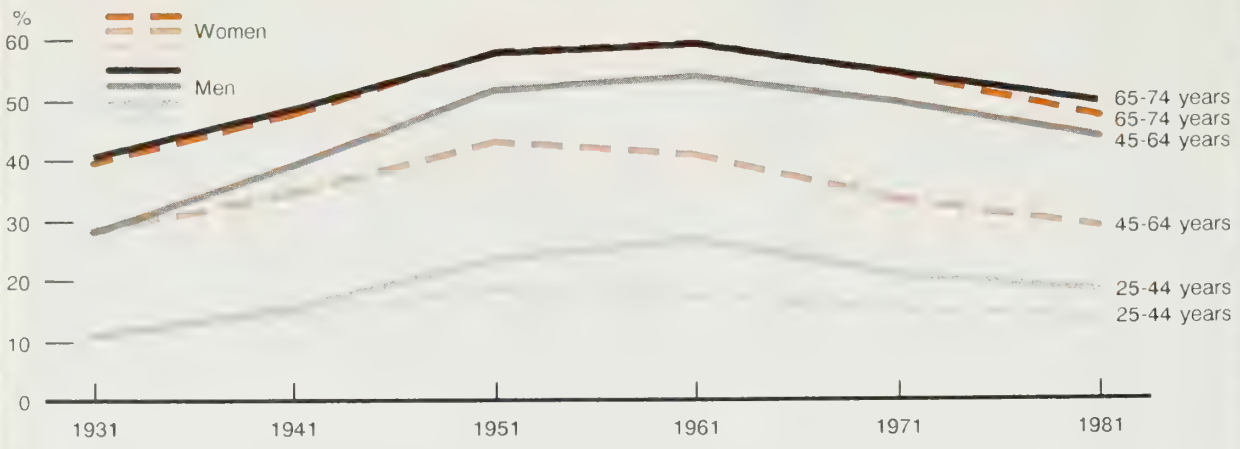
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Percentage of Deaths Caused by Cardiovascular Disease, 1931-1981



Source: Nagnur, D., *Longevity and Historical Life Tables, 1921-1981, Canada and the Provinces*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-506.

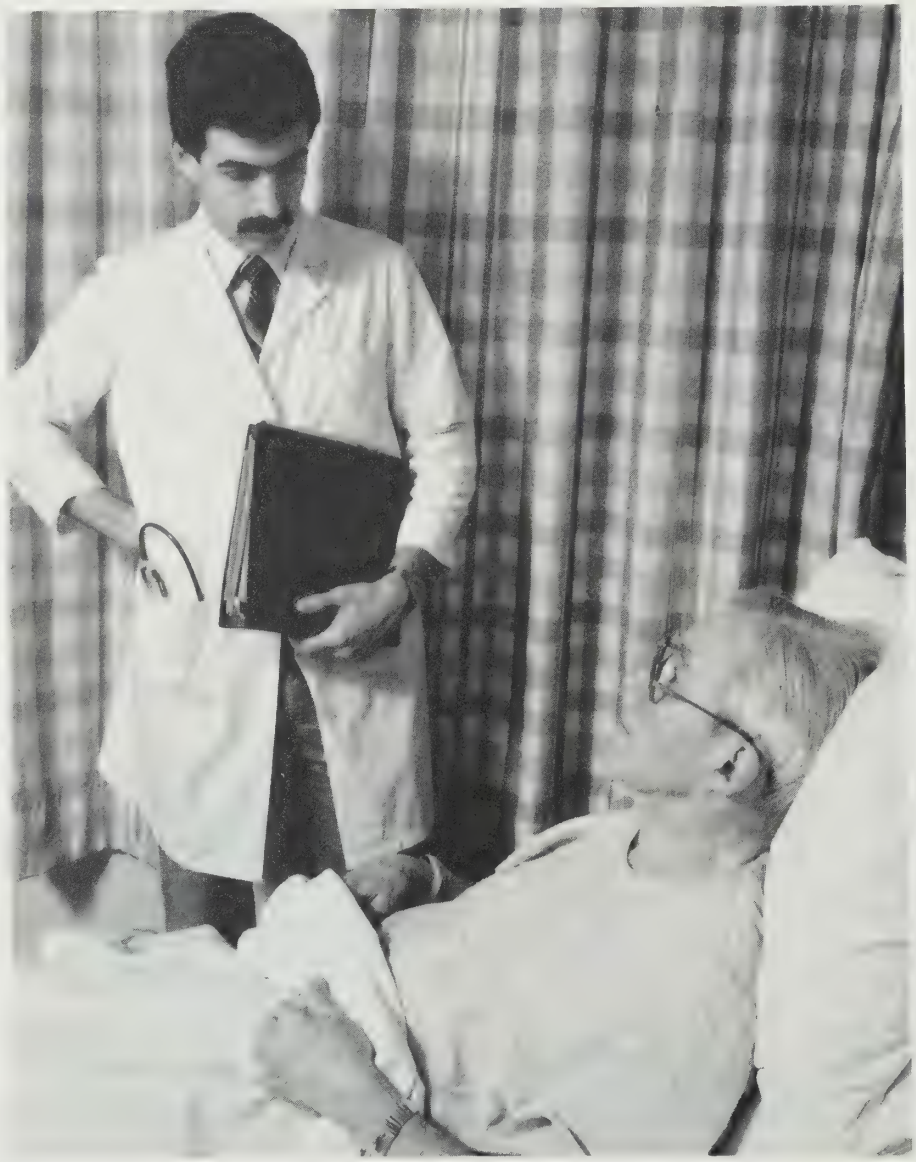
1981 period than during the first half. Between 1951 and 1981, 55% of the total increase in life expectancy at birth for women, and 34% for men, was accounted for by improvements in mortality of those aged 45 and over. In the 1921-1951 period, the percentages were 19% for women and just 1% for men.

Leading Causes of Death

Increases in life expectancies, both at birth and for successively older age groups, have been accompanied by, and to some extent have been caused by, changes in the leading causes of death in Canada.

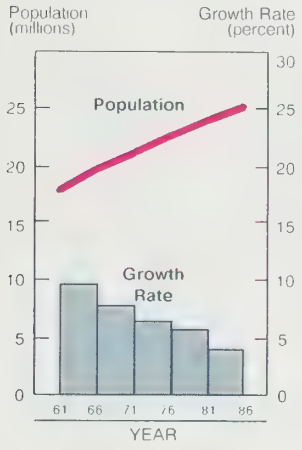
Between 1931 and 1981, there was a 90% decline in the death rate for children under age 5. In the same period, death rates for both children aged 5-14, and women aged 15-24, declined by around 80%. These were the largest declines in death rates of all age groups. Much of these declines resulted from the almost complete control of diseases such as polio, tuberculosis, diphtheria, whooping cough and the category of influenza, bronchitis and pneumonia, which were leading causes of death of young persons in earlier years.

In contrast to the decline in many causes of death among children and young adults, deaths due to accidents, poisonings and violence (including suicide) have increased substantially. Conse-

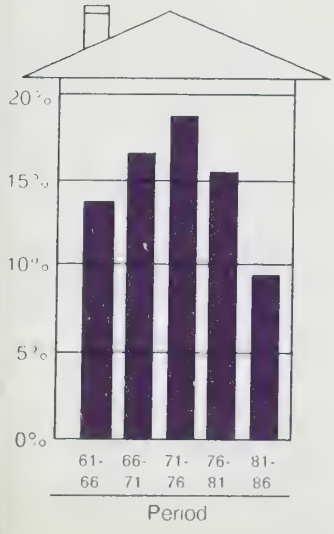


Continued Slower Population Growth

- Canada's population growth rate continued to decline.



- Despite much lower growth, Alberta remained our fastest growing province between 1981 and 1986.
- 7.7 million people (30% of our total population) now live in the three census metropolitan areas of Toronto, Montréal and Vancouver.
- Saskatoon posted the highest population growth rate among census metropolitan areas.
- Suburban municipalities continued to expand.
- The number of occupied private dwellings grew twice as fast as the population.



Canada's population reached 25,354,064 last June, according to results from the 1986 Census. This represents an increase of over one million persons, or 4.2% from 1981.

But, while Canada's population increased, the rate of growth continued to decline. The growth rate of 4.2% in the 1981-1986 period was the lowest five-year growth rate recorded in the last 25 years.

HOW THE PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES FARED: Alberta was the fastest growing province between 1981 and 1986. In this period, the population of Alberta increased by 6.1%. This was significantly lower than the increase 21.7% registered during the 1976-1981 period.

Ontario was the second fastest growing province with a growth rate of 5.7%. Ontario was also the only province east of Manitoba to experience a growth rate above the national average in the 1981-1986 period.

Population growth in the other western provinces also exceeded the national rate. Another notable fact is that Saskatchewan became the sixth province with a population of over one million.

Of the provinces, Manitoba experienced the largest increase in its growth rate, from 0.5% between 1976 and 1981 to 4.4% between 1981 and 1986.

Quebec registered a population growth of 1.6%, the second smallest growth rate among the provinces. This was a decline from a level of 3.3% experienced during the 1976-1981 period. Newfoundland had the lowest provincial growth rate, just 0.1% between 1981 and 1986.

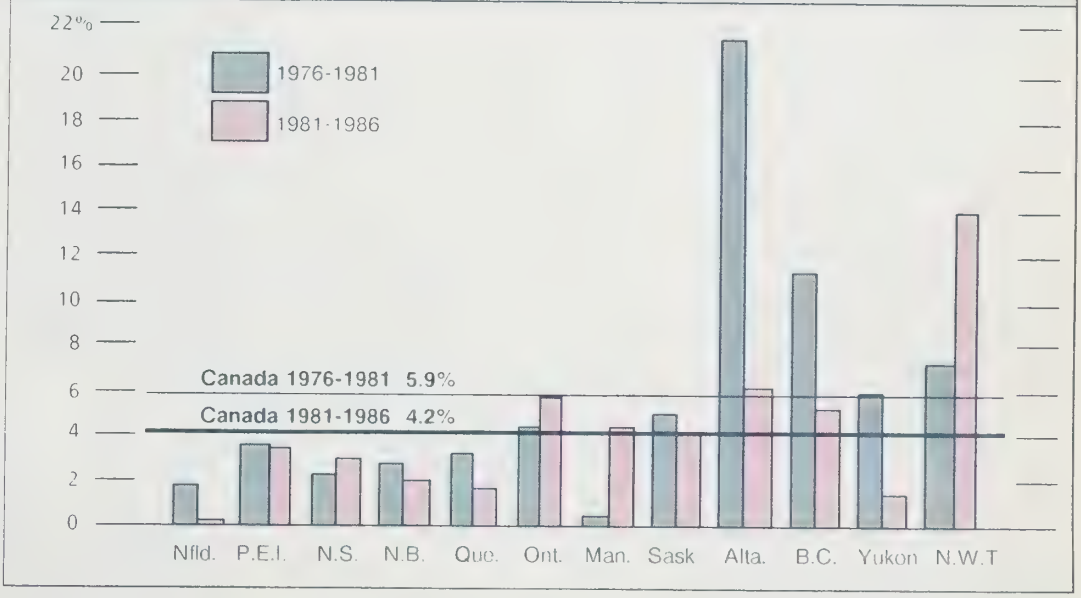
The Yukon Territory experienced a population growth rate of 1.5%, a significant decline from the 6.0% registered during the 1976-1981 period. The Northwest Territories, however, experienced an increase of 14.2% during 1981-1986, up from 7.4% during the 1976-1981 period.

NUMBER OF DWELLINGS GROWING FASTER THAN THE POPULATION: The number of occupied private dwellings grew by 9.4% or 776,000 units between 1981 and 1986. This was more than twice the percentage growth in the population.

The number of occupied private dwellings totalled just over 9 million in 1986, up from 8.3 million in 1981.

The growth in occupied private dwellings for the 1981-1986 period, however, was much lower than the average of 16% recorded in the four previous censuses. This decline in the growth rate in the number of occupied private dwellings is due in part to the slow-down in population growth and also to the maturing of the baby-boom generation, many of whom established new households during the 1970s.

POPULATION GROWTH RATE BY PROVINCE AND TERRITORY, 1976-1986



SOON
TO BE RELEASED ...

More detailed data on population and dwelling counts for all standard levels of census geography are *tentatively* scheduled for release in the third quarter of 1987. These will be available in the following publications.

- **Population and Dwelling Counts - Canada**

  Census Divisions and Subdivisions
  Catalogue 92-101 Price. $43.00

  Federal Electoral Districts
  Catalogue 92-102 Price: $22 00

  Federal Electoral Districts and Census Enumeration Areas
  Catalogue 92-103 Price: $80.00

  Census Metropolitan Areas and Census Agglomerations
  Catalogue 92-104 Price: $24.00

  Unincorporated Places
  Catalogue 92-105 Price: $57.00

- **Population and Dwelling Counts - Provinces and Territories**

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  Catalolgue 92-109 Price: $27.00

  Prince Edward Island
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  Yukon
  Catalogue 92-119 Price: $18.00

  Northwest Territories
  Catalogue 92-120 Price: $20.00

POPULATION REDISTRIBUTED

ONE EFFECT of differences in provincial growth rates has been a continued redistribution of Canada's population.

In the period 1961-1986, the percentage of the population living in British Columbia increased from 8.9% to 11.4%. Alberta also increased its share of the Canadian population in this period, from 7.3% in 1961 to 9.4% in 1986.

Although the percentage of the population living in Alberta increased in this period, both Manitoba and Saskatchewan had smaller proportions of the population in 1986 than in 1961. As a result, the share of the population in the Prairie Region as a whole was almost uncchanged from its 1961 level.

Ontario had 35.9% of Canada's population in 1986, up from 34.2% in 1961. Ontario share of the total population increased slightly between 1981 and 1986, following a decline during the previous five years.

Both the Atlantic provinces and Quebec showed continued declines in their shares of the population. Quebec, with 25.8% of the population in 1986, was down three percentage points from its 1961 level, while the Atlantic provinces accounted for 9.0% of Canada's population in 1986, down from 10.4% in 1961.

POPULATION AND POPULATION DISTRIBUTION, PROVINCES AND TERRITORIES

	Population		Percentage Distribution		
	1981	1986	1961	1981	1986
Canada	24,343,181	25,354,064	100.0	100.0	100.0
Newfoundland	567,681	568,349	2.5	2.3	2.2
Prince Edward Island	122,506	126,646	0.6	0.5	0.5
Nova Scotia	847,442	873,199	4.0	3.5	3.4
New Brunswick	696,403	710,422	3.3	2.9	2.8
Quebec	6,438,403	6,540,276	28.8	26.4	25.8
Ontario	8,625,107	9,113,515	34.2	35.4	35.9
Manitoba	1,026,241	1,071,232	5.1	4.2	4.2
Saskatchewan	968,313	1,010,198	5.1	4.0	4.0
Alberta	2,237,724	2,375,278	7.3	9.2	9.4
British Columbia	2,744,467	2,889,207	8.9	11.3	11.4
Yukon	23,153	23,504	0.1	0.1	0.1
Northwest Territories	45,741	52,238	0.1	0.2	0.2

Major centres getting larger

The average growth rate of Canada's 25 census metropolitan areas for the 1981-1986 period was 5.9%. This was well above the national average.

The biggest gainer among Canada's census metropolitan areas during the 1981-1986 period was Saskatoon with a population growth rate of 14.6%. Ottawa-Hull ranked second with a growth rate of 10.1%, followed by Toronto with 9.5%.

The metropolitan areas of Calgary and Edmonton, which experienced very substantial growth rates of 25.7% and 18.1% during the 1976-1981 period, grew by 7.2% and 6.0%, respectively, between 1981 and 1986.

Toronto, Montréal and Vancouver continue to be Canada's three largest metropolitan areas. Together they comprised 7.7 million people, or 30.5% of Canada's population in 1986. This was up from 29.1% in 1981.

A preliminary analysis of the growth in these three census metropolitan areas indicates a resurgence in the growth of their central cities.



1986 Population of Census Metropolitan Areas and Percentage Change, 1971-1986

Rank 1986	Census Metropolitan Area	Population	Percentage Change[1]		
		1986	1971-1976	1976-1981	1981-1986
1	Toronto	3,427,168	7.7	7.0	9.5
2	Montréal	2,921,357[2]	2.7	0.9	2.1
3	Vancouver	1,380,729	7.8	8.7	8.9
4	Ottawa-Hull	819,263	11.8	3.6	10.1
5	Edmonton	785,465[2]	11.7	18.1	6.0
6	Calgary	671,326[2]	16.5	25.7	7.2
7	Winnipeg	625,304	5.2	1.1	5.6
8	Québec	603,267	8.1	6.3	3.3
9	Hamilton	557,029	5.2	2.4	2.8
10	St. Catharines-Niagara	343,258	5.6	0.8	0.2
11	London	342,302	6.9	4.9	4.7
12	Kitchener	311,195	14.1	5.7	8.1
13	Halifax	295,990	7.0	3.6	6.6
14	Victoria	255,547[2]	11.5	7.0	5.8
15	Windsor	253,988	−0.5	−0.6	1.2
16	Oshawa	203,543	12.4	14.1	9.2
17	Saskatoon	200,665	5.8	15.3	14.6
18	Regina	186,521	7.4	8.7	7.7
19	St. John's	161,901	8.8	6.5	4.6
20	Chicoutimi-Jonquière	158,468	1.8	5.1	0.2
21	Sudbury	148,877	−0.4	−4.5	−4.6
22	Sherbrooke	129,960	-	-	3.8
23	Trois-Rivières	128,888	-	5.1	2.8
24	Thunder Bay	122,217	4.0	1.8	0.2
25	Saint John	121,265	5.8	0.9	0.2

[1] For each period, percentage change is calculated using the boundaries at the end of the period

[2] Excludes population of one or more incompletely enumerated Indian reserves or Indian settlements.

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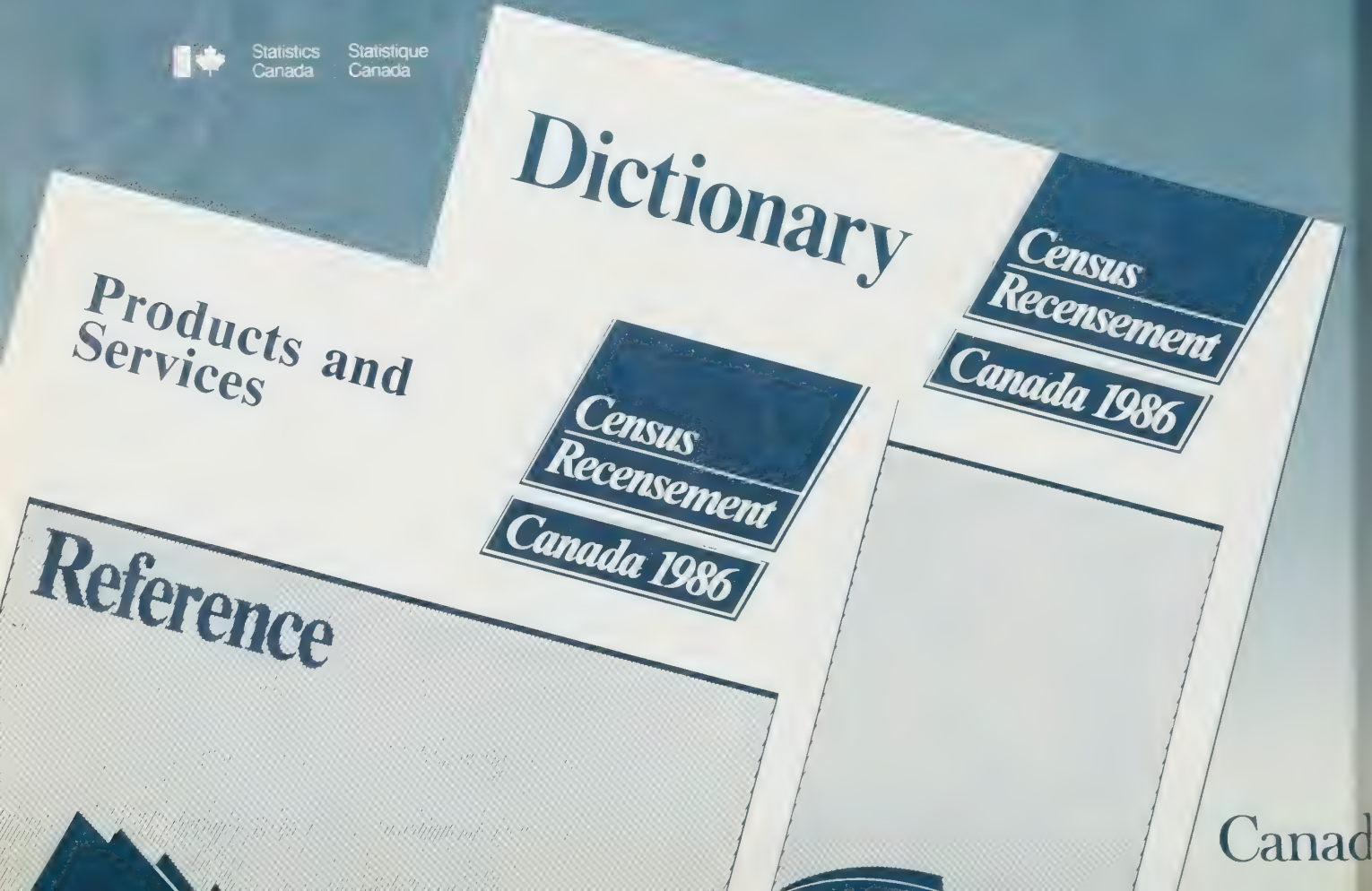
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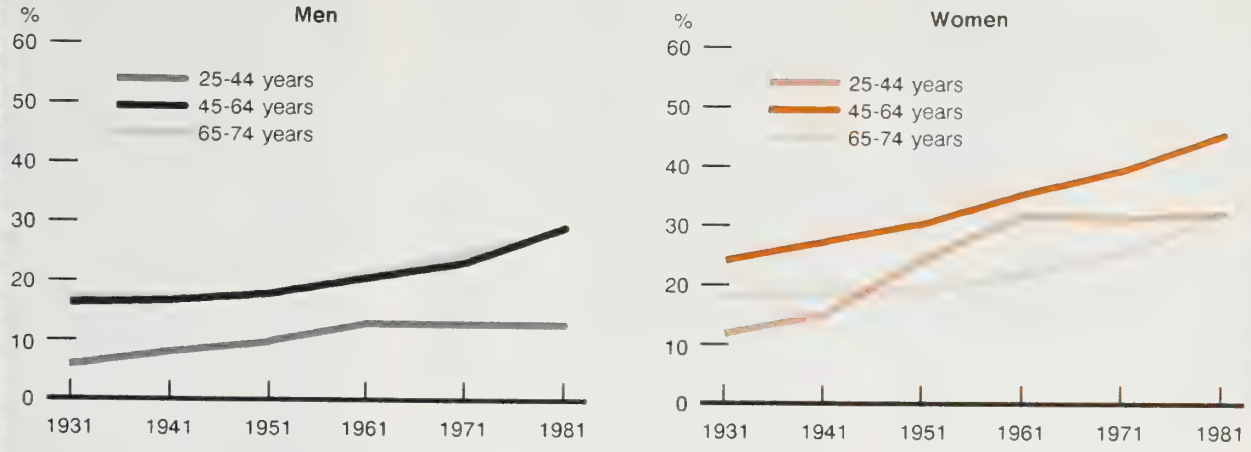
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Percentage of Deaths Caused by Cancer, 1931-1981



Source: Nagnur, D., *Longevity and Historical Life Tables, 1921-1981, Canada and the Provinces*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-506.

quently, this category has been the leading cause of death for both men and women aged 5-24 since 1961.

Increases in deaths due to accidents, poisonings and violence have been particularly prevalent among men aged 15-24. As a result, the death rate for this group declined by only 50% between 1931 and 1981, a decline considerably smaller than that for other young persons.

The percentage of deaths caused by accidents, poisonings and violence also increased among the population aged 25-44 between 1961 and 1981. By 1981, this category accounted for 53% of all deaths for men in this age group, up from 42% in 1961. The percentage for women doubled over the same period, from 16% to 32%.

Among people aged 25-44, the percentage of deaths caused by cancer in 1981 was much higher for women (32%) than for men (13%). These percentages have been relatively stable since 1961. In the same period, the percentage of deaths due to cardiovascular disease, for both women and men aged 25-44, declined.

Cardiovascular disease was the leading cause of death for men aged 45-64, and for both men and women aged 65 and older in 1981. Deaths due to cardiovascular disease, however, declined as a percentage of all deaths for most of these older age groups in the last few decades. During the 1961-1981 period, the proportion of deaths among men aged 45-64 attributable to cardiovascular disease declined from 54% to 44%. The corresponding percentages for women were 41% and 29%. Cardiovascular disease accounted for almost half of all deaths of both men and women aged 65-74 in 1981, down from around 60% in 1961. The one exception to this trend was among men aged 75 and over. In 1981, 55% of deaths of men aged 75 and over were attributable to cardiovascular disease, the same as in 1961. The percentage of all deaths resulting from cardiovascular disease for women in this age group, however, dropped from 69% to 63% in this period.

The percentage of deaths resulting from cancer among those aged 45 and over increased in the last two decades. For women aged 45-64, the percentage of deaths due to cancer increased from 36% in 1961 to 45% in 1981. Consequently, cancer was the leading cause of death for women in this age range in 1971 and 1981. The percentage of deaths due to cancer for men aged 45-64 increased from 21% to 30% over the same period. Cancer accounted for around 30% of deaths of both men and women aged 65-74 in 1981, up from around 21% in 1961. For those 75 years and older, the percentage of deaths caused by cancer doubled for both men and women over the 1961-1981 period.

■ ■ ■

During the past six decades, life expectancy has increased considerably for both men and women, but especially for women. Increases in life expectancy have been due largely to reductions in infant and early childhood mortality. Further increases will have to come from two areas: reductions in diseases most characteristic of older age groups, such as cardiovascular disease and cancer; and the reduction of deaths due to accidents, poisonings and violence among younger age groups. These three categories are the leading causes of death in Canada, and are all heavily influenced by lifestyle and environmental factors.

Jo-Anne Parliament *is Associate Editor of Canadian Social Trends.*

AVERAGE EXPENDITURE OF URBAN CANADIANS

by Mary Anne Burke



Expenditure patterns of urban Canadians have been considerably transformed since the 1960s by a rise in the portion of average income taken by taxes. Taxes, rather than food, now account for the single largest expenditure of urban families and unattached individuals.

Expenditure on basic necessities such as shelter, food, and clothing, however, continues to account for a substantially larger proportion of expenditure of families in the lowest income quintile, compared to those in the highest quintile.

Overall Expenditure Patterns

In 1984, the average expenditure of urban Canadian families and unattached individuals was $32,680. This represented about 93% of before-tax income and other money receipts.

Personal income taxes accounted for nearly 19% of total expenditure in 1984, compared to 18% for shelter, 15% for food, 12% for transportation, and 6% for clothing. The percentage of expenditure on taxes remained around this level since the early 1970s, after a decade of steep incline. In 1964, for exam-

Percentage of Total Expenditure on Selected Items by Urban Families and Unattached Individuals, 1964-1984



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 62-555, *Family Expenditure in Canada*; Household Surveys Division, Family Expenditure Surveys Section, unpublished revised statistics.

ple, personal taxes accounted for 9% of all expenditure.

In the same period, the share of expenditure on shelter remained relatively constant. The proportion of all spending devoted to shelter dropped from 17% in 1964 to less than 16% in 1974, but increased to 18% by 1982. It remained at that level in 1984.

The percentage of expenditure on food declined steadily, from 21% of total spending in 1964 to 15% in 1984. Over the same period, the share of expenditure on clothing dropped from 10% to 6%. Spending on transportation remained relatively constant at around 12% of total expenditure over the past two decades.





Percentage of Urban[1] Family Expenditure on Selected Items, by Income Quintiles, 1969-1984

	Food	Shelter	Clothing	Transportation	Personal income taxes
Lowest Quintile			%		
1969	26.1	27.3	8.2	8.0	0.9
1974	26.4	25.6	7.3	7.7	3.6
1978	24.7	28.6	6.6	8.5	2.2
1982	22.6	29.6	5.9	8.8	2.5
1984	21.8	30.5	5.5	8.0	2.0
Second Quintile					
1969	20.7	18.8	8.5	11.7	8.8
1974	20.1	18.2	7.5	12.3	10.8
1978	19.6	20.1	7.0	12.4	10.2
1982	17.4	22.1	6.1	12.4	11.0
1984	17.7	21.7	6.1	12.8	9.9
Third Quintile					
1969	19.6	17.6	8.6	12.2	11.5
1974	18.6	16.0	7.6	12.3	15.0
1978	17.9	18.1	7.1	12.4	14.0
1982	16.0	19.1	5.9	12.3	16.3
1984	15.4	18.9	6.3	12.9	15.2
Fourth Quintile					
1969	17.7	15.8	9.1	12.4	13.5
1974	17.1	15.1	7.7	12.3	17.7
1978	16.0	16.4	7.2	12.3	17.8
1982	14.6	17.3	6.1	12.2	19.4
1984	14.4	17.0	6.1	12.3	19.0
Highest Quintile					
1969	14.1	13.9	8.9	11.2	20.6
1974	14.0	12.7	7.6	10.7	24.3
1978	13.9	14.3	7.4	11.3	23.3
1982	11.9	14.8	6.2	10.5	26.3
1984	12.1	13.9	6.6	11.1	25.8

[1] Covers 17 cities, except for 1974 when Charlottetown, Summerside and Victoria were not included.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 62-555, *Family Expenditure in Canada,* 1984; Household Surveys Division, Family Expenditure Surveys Section, unpublished revised statistics.

Expenditure by Income Group

Generally, lower income groups spend proportionately more on food and shelter, and less on taxes, than do higher income groups. In 1984, for example, over 50% of all expenditure by the lowest income quintile was for food (22%) and shelter (31%). In comparison, just over a quarter of total expenditure by the highest income quintile was on food (12%) and shelter (14%). On the other hand, personal taxes accounted for only 2% of spending by those in the lowest income quintile compared to nearly 26% for those in the highest quintile. Between 1974 and 1984, tax expenditure dropped from 4% to 2% for the lowest quintile and increased slightly, from 24% to 26%, for the highest quintile.

As well, while all income quintiles experienced increased shelter expenditure between 1974 and 1984, the increase was highest in the lowest income quintile. In this period, the percentage of spending on shelter by the lowest income quintile increased by 4.9 percentage points compared to a 1.2 percentage point increase for those in the highest income quintile. The proportion of total expenditure on food, clothing, and transportation, on the other hand, declined by relatively similar amounts in all income groups during this period.

Mary Anne Burke *is Associate Editor of Canadian Social Trends.*

PART-TIME UNIVERSITY ENROLMENT

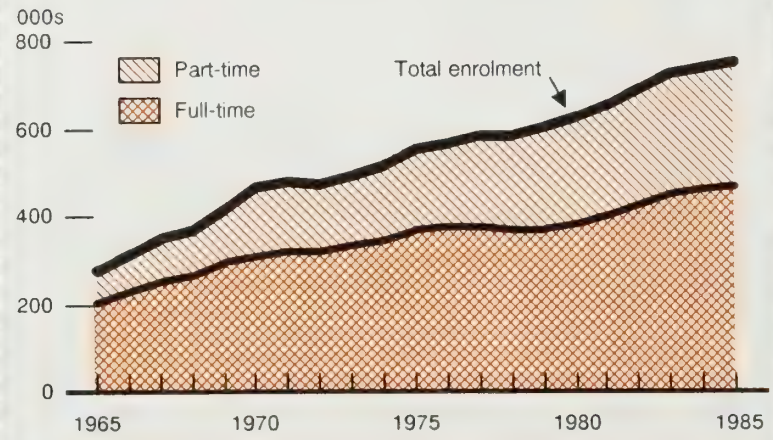
by Rebecca Bélanger and Teresa Omiecinski



One of the more dramatic trends in Canadian education has been the growth of part-time university enrolment[1]. In the late 1960s, and the 1970s, the rate of increase in the number of part-time university students far outpaced the rate of increase in the number of full-time students. In the 1980s, however, the rate of growth in part-time enrolment slowed, and has actually been lower than that for full-time enrolment.

Overall, in the last two decades, part-time university enrolment increased by almost 300%, from 73,000 in 1965 to 285,000 in 1985. In the same period, total full-time enrolment increased by 129%, from

Total University Enrolment, by Full- and Part-time Status, 1965-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204, *Universities: Enrolment and Degrees*.

[1] The student count is taken in the fall term of the academic year; as such, for example, 1975 data refer to the fall term count for the 1975-76 academic year. As there is no commonly accepted definition of part-time student, Statistics Canada reports full- or part-time registration status as that reported by each institution.

204,000 to 467,000. Within this 20 year period, the largest increases in part-time enrolment occurred between 1965 and 1980. In the 1965-1980 period, part-time enrolment increased by an average of 8.7% per year, over twice the average rate of increase for full-time enrolment (4.2%.) In the period 1980-1985, part-time enrolment increased by only 3.1% per year compared with 4.1% for full-time enrolment.

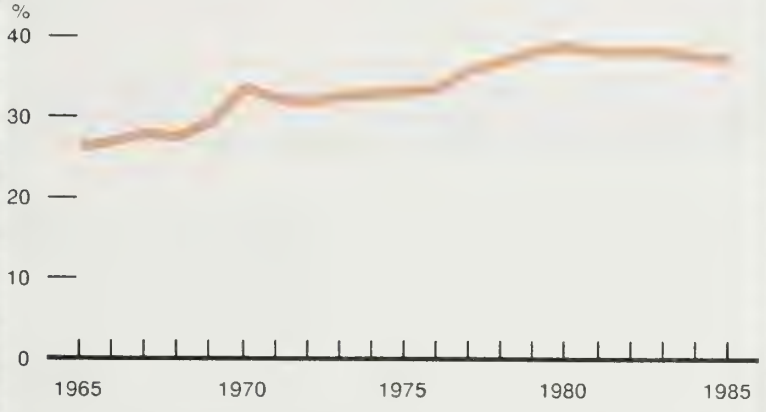
As a result of these different growth rates, part-time students made up 38% of the total university population in 1985, up from 26% in 1965, but down one percentage point, from 39% in 1980.

The slowing of the growth in part-time university enrolment reflects changes in the participation rates of these programmes. Between 1965 and 1975, the growth in part-time enrolment was mainly a function of increasing participation rates. In that decade, the proportion of the Canadian population aged 18 and over participating in part-time university studies doubled from 0.6% to 1.2%. Between 1975 and 1980, however, the percentage of Canadians aged 18 and over studying part-time increased only from 1.2% to 1.4%, and in the period 1980 to 1985, the participation rate increased to just 1.5%.

The increases in part-time enrolment that have taken place in recent years have resulted from the fact that the population aged 25-44, the age normally associated with part-time study[2], has grown rapidly since the mid-1970s. The growth of this age group occurred as the large population born during the baby boom entered this age range.

There is very little difference in the proportion of undergraduate and graduate students studying part-time. In 1985, 38% of undergraduate, and 39% of graduate students were enrolled part-time. However, the percentage of undergraduate students enrolled part-time increased between 1975 and 1985, while the percentage of part-time graduate students remained the same.

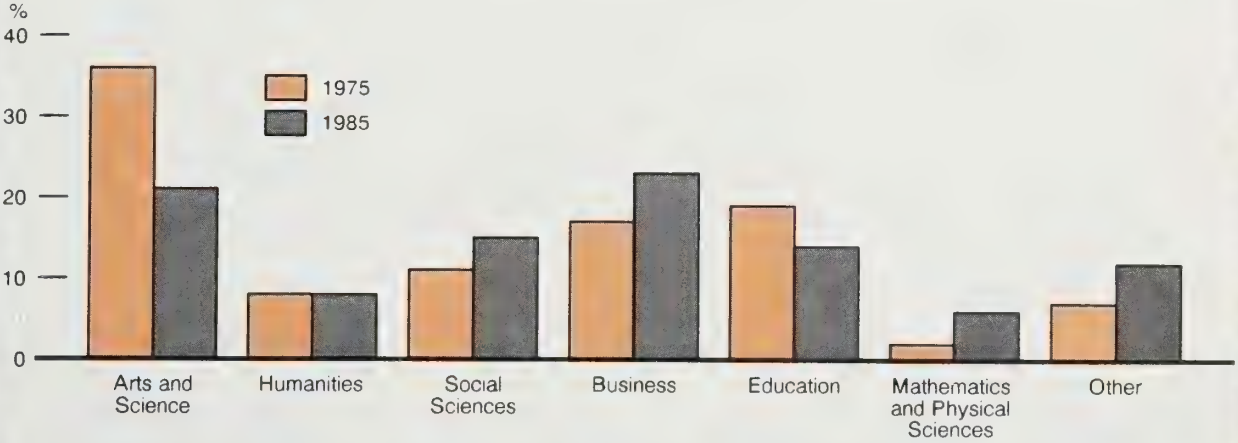
Part-time Enrolment as a Percentage of Total University Enrolment, 1965-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204, *Universities: Enrolment and Degrees.*

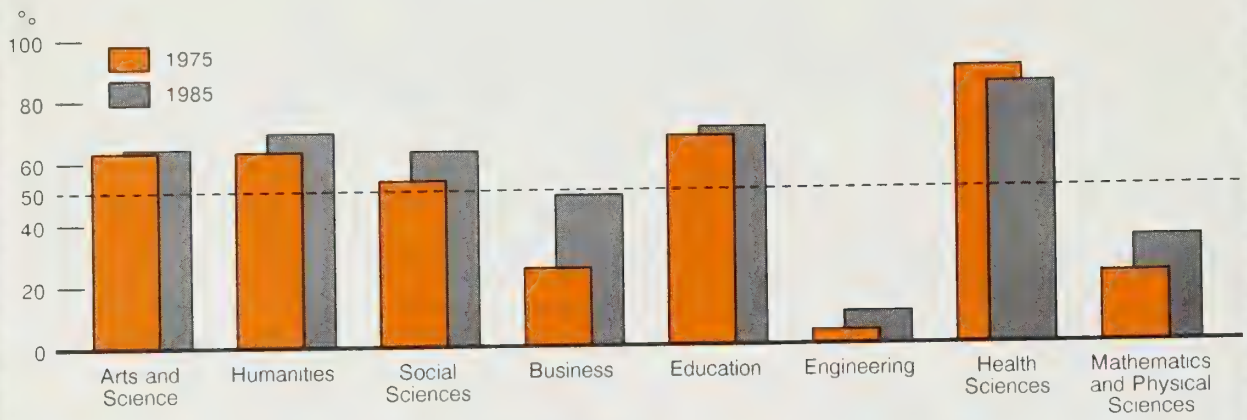
[2] In both 1975 and 1985, two-thirds of part-time university students were between the ages of 25 and 44. Less than 25% were under age 25, the age group normally associated with full-time study, and only 10% were aged 45 and over.

Percentage Distribution of Part-time Enrolment, by Field of Study, 1975 and 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204, *Universities: Enrolment and Degrees.*

Women as a Proportion of Part-time Enrolment, by Selected Fields of Study, 1975 and 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204, *Universities: Enrolment and Degrees.*

Most Part-time University Students are Women

Women have accounted for much of the growth in part-time enrolment. Between 1965 and 1985, the number of women enrolled part-time increased by over 500%, from 28,000 to 169,000. The corresponding increase for men was 158%, from 45,000 to 116,000. As a result, by 1985, women made up 59% of all part-time students compared to 39% in 1965.

For both men and women, however, the rate of increase in part-time enrolment was greater than that for full-time enrolment between 1965 and 1980. In the period 1980-1985, though, percentage increases in full-time enrolment were greater than those for part-time study for both sexes. As a result of these shifts, female part-time students increased as a proportion of all women in university from 31% in 1965 to 45% in 1980, but then declined slightly to 43% by 1985. For men, the percentage went from 24% in 1965 to 33% in 1980, before slipping to 32% by 1985.

Women made up the majority (61%) of part-time undergraduate students in 1985. Men, however, made up the majority of part-time graduate students, though women's share of part-time enrolment in graduate studies has grown in the last decade, from less than a third (30%) in 1975 to almost half (46%) in 1985.

The percentage of part-time students who are women is higher among older age groups. In 1985, women accounted for 70% of all part-time students aged 45 and over, 59% of those aged 25-44, and 56% of those under age 25.

Academic Background of Part-time Students

In 1983-84, over half of all part-time undergraduate students already held postsecondary qualifications. Just over one-quarter (27%) had a university degree, diploma or certificate, while just under a quarter (24%) had a certificate or diploma from a community college. A further 21% had some previous university or community college experience. Only 28% of all part-time undergraduates had not gone beyond high school prior to enrolling in university. These figures suggest that for many, part-time study is a response to the demands of a rapidly changing socio-economic environment and the attendant need for lifelong learning.

Reasons for Part-time Enrolment

The most common reason people chose to study part-time versus full-time in 1983-84 was to enable them to continue working while they studied. That year, for both men and women, half of all part-time undergraduate students, and two-thirds of part-time graduate students, cited this as the most important reason why they chose to study part-time rather than full-time.

Personal or family responsibility was the second most important reason for choosing to study part-time, particularly for women. In 1983-84, 23% of female and 11% of male part-time undergraduates indicated they were enrolled part-time because of family or personal responsibilities. The corresponding percentages for part-time graduate students were 17% for women and 14% for men. On the other hand, fewer than 10% of part-time undergraduates preferred the work load associated with part-time study, while just 6% were enrolled part-time because it was financially more feasible.

What Part-time Students Study

There have been major changes in the fields of study attracting part-time students. Between 1975 and 1985, the proportion of part-time students[3] enrolled in Business pro-

[3] Includes only those students registered in a specific field of study.

Reasons for Choosing to Study Part-time Rather than Full-time, 1983-84

	Undergraduate		Graduate	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
	%			
To keep present job while studying	56.5	50.0	68.1	62.5
Personal or family responsibilities	11.3	23.4	13.5	16.8
Easier to pay for	5.5	5.5	4.7	6.7
Preferred workload	10.0	9.4	5.3	4.7
Availability of courses by correspondence, television, or other electronic medium	4.0	3.9	-	0.8
Did not meet academic requirements for full-time study	2.5	1.4	0.4	0.7
Other reasons	10.2	6.4	8.0	7.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Postsecondary Student Survey, 1983-84, unpublished data.

grammes increased from 16% to 23%. There were also significant increases in the share of part-time students accounted for by the Social Sciences, and by Mathematics and the Physical Sciences. During the same period, the percentage of part-time students in Arts and Science fell from 36% to 21%, while the percentage in Education declined from 19% to 14%.

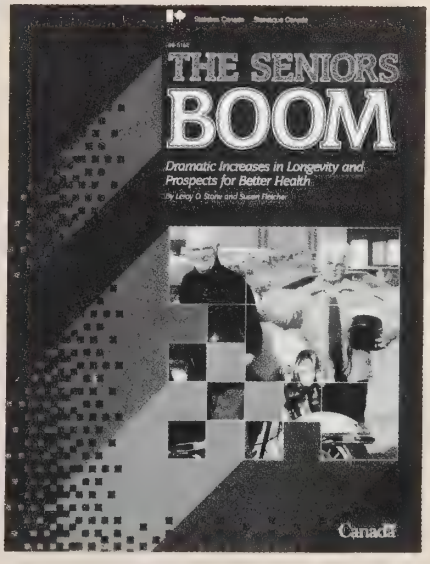
Women made up the majority of part-time undergraduate students in all fields in 1985, except Business, Engineering, and Mathematics and the Physical Sciences. Over the last decade, however, there were large increases in the part-time female enrolment in these particular fields. Women made up almost half of all part-time Business students (49%) in 1985, up from just over one-quarter (26%) in 1975. In the same period, women increased from 5% to 11% of part-time students in Engineering, and from 23% to 34% of those in Mathematics and the Physical Sciences. Similar trends were evident at the graduate level.

Rebecca Bélanger *and* **Teresa Omiecinski** *are analysts with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.*

THE SENIORS' BOOM

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ANNUAL REVIEW OF LABOUR FORCE TRENDS

by Doreen Duchesne



Total employment in Canada reached an all-time high of 11.6 million in 1986. This represents a 2.9% increase from 1985 when 11.3 million Canadians were employed. Furthermore, total employment has risen by almost 1 million since the peak of the recession in 1982. In addition, the percentage of the working-age population which was employed increased one full percentage point - to 59.4% - between 1985 and 1986. This figure, however, is still lower than it was in 1981.

Among other labour market highlights in 1986, the overall labour force participation rate increased for the fourth consecutive year. Last year, 65.7% of all Canadians of working age were in the labour force, up from 65.2% in 1985, and 64.1% in 1982.

The proportion of women with jobs approached 50% in 1986. Last year, 49.7% of all women of working age were employed, up from 48.5% in 1985. At the same time, the percentage of men who were employed increased from 68.7% to 69.5%.

The annual unemployment rate of 9.6% in 1986 was the lowest in five years. Unemployment was down from 10.5% in 1985 and 11.9% in 1983. Still, in 1986, over 1.2 million Canadians were unemployed.

Unemployment was down substantially among young Canadians, although the incidence of unemployment among those aged 15-24 in 1986 was well above the national rate. In 1986, the unemployment rate for men in this age range was 16.5%, down from 18.2% in 1985. The rate for young women was 13.8% in 1986, compared to 14.6% the previous year.

The incidence of long-term unemployment was down in 1986.

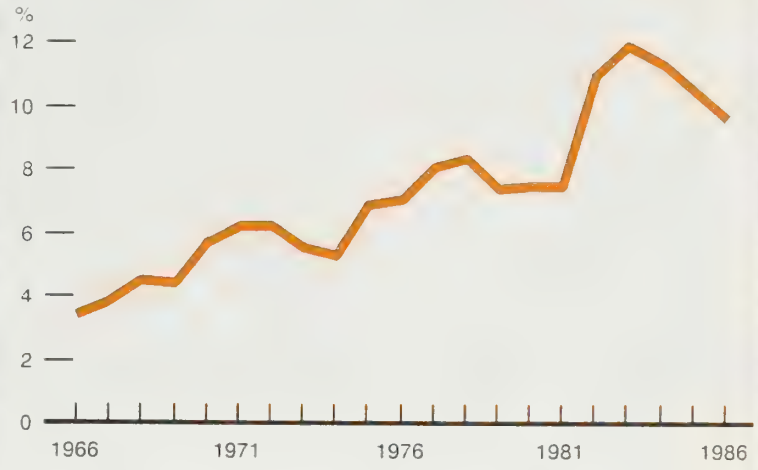
The number of persons unemployed for more than 52 weeks declined by 18.3% in 1986, while the total number of unemployed fell by 6.9%. Nevertheless, the long-term unemployed accounted for 9.0% of total unemployment in 1986, compared with just 2.6% in 1976.

Because many labour market changes happen gradually, annual shifts in labour force indicators seldom tell the whole story. Some of the major ongoing trends in the Canadian labour market include the long-term increase in unemployment, the increased labour force participation of women, the aging of the labour force, changes in the regional distribution of employment, and the shift of employment from the goods-producing to the service sector of the economy.

Unemployment in Canada

Unemployment in Canada has generally increased over the last twenty years. The annual unemployment rate, which was under 4% in 1966, climbed to a peak of 11.9% in 1983, but fell below 10% in 1986. The upward course of the unemployment rate since the mid-1960s, however, has not been smooth. There were periods of rapid increase in the unemployment rate, for example, in the years 1966 to 1971, 1974 to 1978 and 1981 through 1983.

The Unemployment Rate, 1966-1986

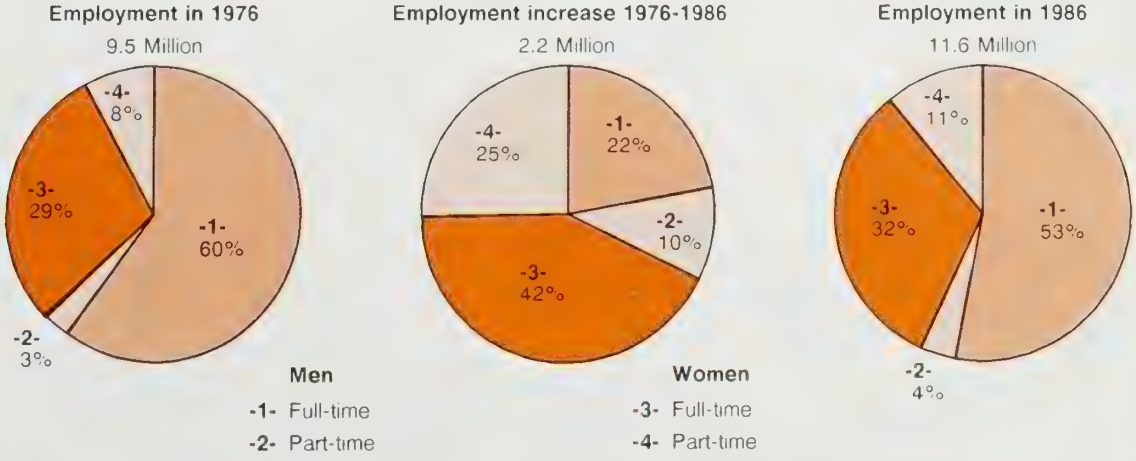


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201, *Historical Labour Force Statistics*.

While periodic upturns in economic activity in the intervening years resulted in reductions in the unemployment rate, typically the rate did not fall back to the previous low point. A similar pattern has emerged in recent years. While the unemployment rate has declined significantly since 1983, it is still well above the average unemployment rate of 7.5% experienced between 1979 and 1981.



The Changing Composition of Employment, 1976-1986



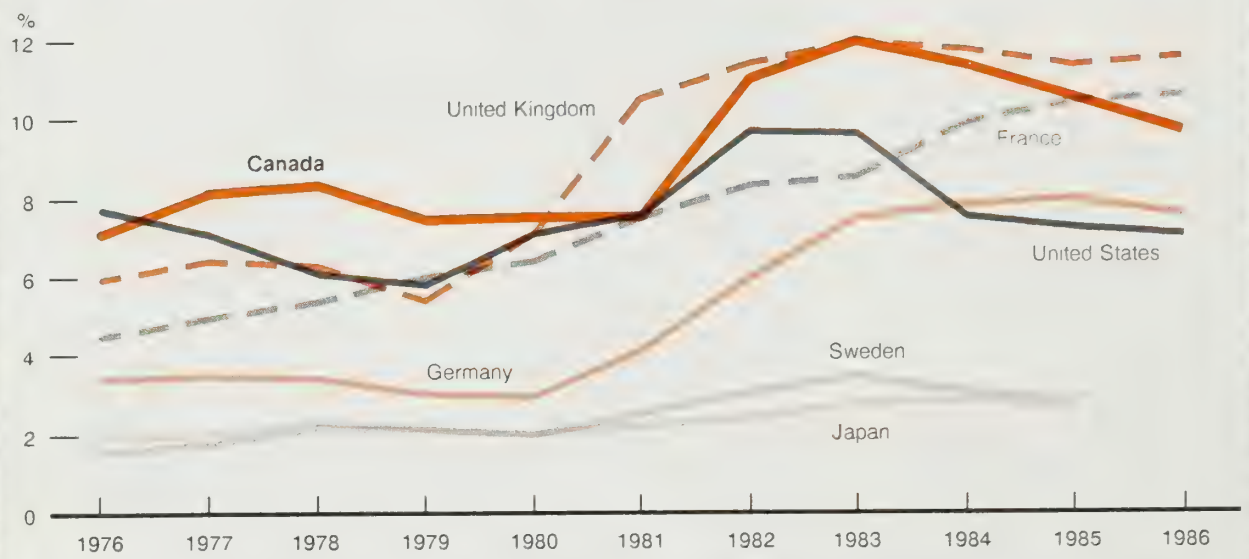
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201, *Historical Labour Force Statistics*.

Unemployment in Canada: An International Perspective

Despite recent declines, the Canadian unemployment rate remains considerably above that of the United States. In 1986, the unemployment rate in Canada was 9.6%, compared to 7.0% in the United States. Since 1984, however, the gap between the Canadian rate and the U.S. rate has narrowed, in spite of the fact that the Canadian labour force has grown more rapidly.

Canada's recent labour market performance looks better when compared with trends in major Western European nations. While unemployment in Canada dropped substantially between 1983 and 1986, the unemployment rate in France continued to increase and rates in the United Kingdom and West Germany were essentially unchanged. As a result, in 1986, the unemployment rate in Canada was lower than in France and the United Kingdom. It was also considerably closer to the rate in West Germany than it was in the late 1970s. The unemployment rate in Canada in 1986, though, was well above rates in Japan and Sweden which were below 3%.

Unemployment Rates in Selected Countries, 1976-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201, *Historical Labour Force Statistics*; U.S. Department of Labour, Bureau of Labour Statistics.

Women in the Labour Force

One of the most significant developments in the Canadian economy has been the influx of women into the labour market. In the last decade, the number of working women in Canada climbed 42%, from 3.5 million in 1976 to just under 5 million in 1986. In comparison, the number of employed men rose by only 12% in the same period. As a result, women's share of total employment increased from 37% in 1976 to 43% in 1986.

Part-time work contributed substantially to the increase in the employment levels of women. Between 1976 and 1986, the number of women working part-time grew by almost 550,000. As a result, over a quarter (26%) of all women employed in 1986 worked part-time, up from 21% in 1976. In comparison, the number of men working part-time increased by 214,000 in the 1976-1986 period, and just 8% of employed men were working part-time in 1986. +

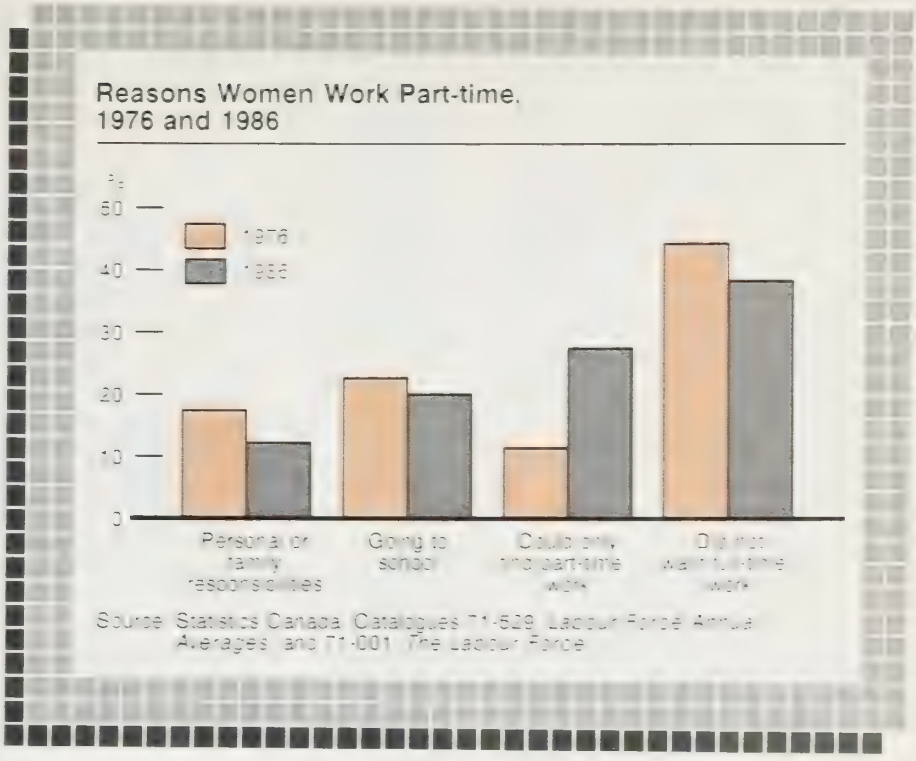
While the majority of women who worked part-time in 1986 did so because they either did not want full-time work (39%), were going to school (20%), or had personal or family responsibilities which precluded full-time employment (13%), many were obliged to accept part-time work because it was all they could find. Between 1976 and 1986, the number of women working part-time because they could not find full-time jobs rose from 86,000 to 353,000. In this period, these involuntary part-timers increased from 12% to 27% of all women working part-time. As well, the increase in the number of women working part-time who could not find full-time employment represented just under half of the overall rise in the number of women working part-time in the 1976-1986 period.

At the same time, women have made inroads in the full-time sector. In 1986, 38% of full-time workers were female compared to 33% ten years earlier.

Since 1976, most of the growth

in female employment has occurred in managerial and professional, and service and clerical occupations. The managerial and professional occupations accounted for 46% of the total increase in employment of women over the decade, while service and clerical occupations made up 39% of this growth. Within the managerial and professional occupational group, over three-quarters of the increase in female employment was full-time. In contrast, part-time work accounted for over one-half of the growth in service and clerical occupations.

Earnings of working women remain well below those of men. In 1985, almost half of all working women earned less than $10,000. In contrast, only 28% of men were in this earnings group. Additionally, in 1985, women employed full-time for the whole year earned, on average, $18,700. This was just 64.9% of the average earnings of comparable men. This sex differential among persons working full-time throughout the year, though, has improved since 1981, when the average earnings of women were 63.6% those of men.





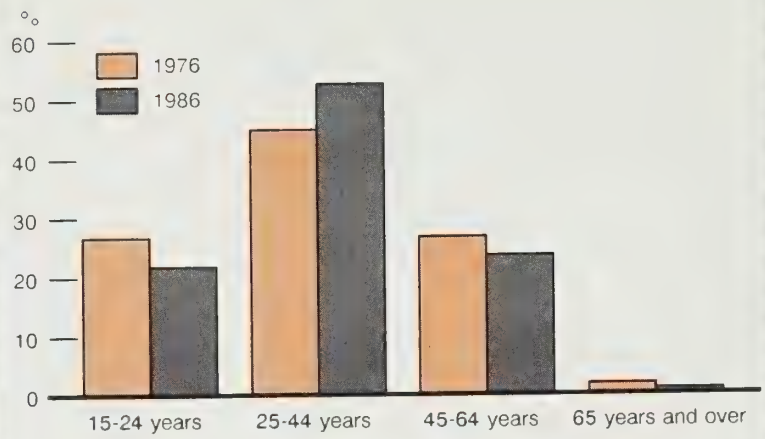
The Aging of the Labour Force

The average age of labour force participants in Canada has been gradually increasing, primarily because the large population born during the baby boom is aging. In 1976, most of the baby boomers were in their late teens or twenties; by 1986, the population born during the baby boom was concentrated in the group aged 25-44. In the 1976-1986 period, the labour force aged 25-44 increased by almost 50%, from 4.6 million to 6.8 million, and the proportion of the labour force accounted for by persons in this age range increased from 45% to 53%.

Overall, the labour force aged 15-24 was 111,000 larger in 1986 than in 1976. The size of the labour force aged 15-24, however, has declined in the 1980s, from 3.1 million in 1981 to 2.9 million in 1986. As a result, the percentage of from 27% in 1976 to 22% in 1986.

The labour force aged 45-64 grew by 357,000 between 1976 and 1986. However, it declined as a percentage of the total labour force, from 27% in 1976 to 24% in 1986. One reason for the declining share of the labour force made up of those aged 45-64 is that an increasing proportion of older men in this age range are no longer in the labour the labour force aged 15-24 declined force. In 1986, for example, 69% of men aged 55-64 were in the labour force, down from 77% ten years earlier. +

Labour Force Distribution by Age, 1976 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201, *Historical Labour Force Statistics*.

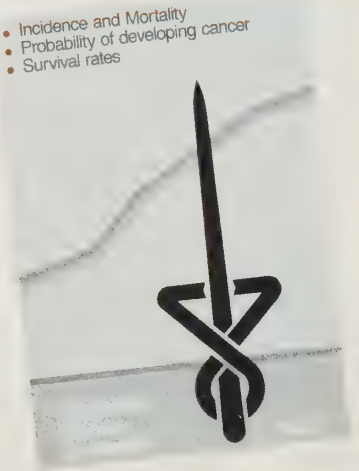
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Labour Force Terms

Some of the terms used in this article are defined as follows: the working-age population is the civilian, non-institutionalized population aged 15 and over. The labour force is that portion of the working-age population that is employed or unemployed. The employed are those at work, or those who have a job but are not at work because of illness, disability, vacation, labour dispute or other reason. The unemployed are those without work but available and looking for work. The labour force participation rate represents the labour force as a percentage of the population aged 15 and over. The unemployment rate represents the unemployed as a percentage of the labour force. The employment/population ratio represents the employed as a percentage of the population aged 15 and over.

Provincial Changes

Employment/population ratios differ markedly by province. In 1986, the percentage of the working age population which was employed ranged from 42% in Newfoundland to 65% in Alberta.

Changes in employment/population ratios, as a result of both the recession in the early 1980s and the post-recession recovery, were felt unevenly across the country. The employment/population rate declined in all provinces except Prince Edward Island between 1981 and 1983. There were particularly large declines in this ratio in Alberta and British Columbia. The employment/population ratio fell 5.6 percentage points in Alberta and 5.4 percentage points in British Columbia in this period.

Gains in employment during the post-recession recovery period have been strongest in Ontario and Quebec. In Ontario, the employment/population rate rose by 3.5 percentage points between 1983 and 1986, while in Quebec it was 3.1 percentage points higher in the same period. New Brunswick (up 2.1 percentage points) was the only other province in which the employment/population rate increased by more than 2 percentage points in this period.

Provincial Employment/Population Ratios, 1976-1986

	1976	1981	1983	1986
		%		
Newfoundland	42.8	45.3	42.3	42.4
Prince Edward Island	51.3	52.2	52.8	53.9
Nova Scotia	49.9	51.4	49.8	51.3
New Brunswick	47.7	49.7	47.2	49.3
Quebec	53.3	55.1	52.4	55.5
Ontario	59.9	63.2	60.2	63.7
Manitoba	58.4	61.0	59.4	61.3
Saskatchewan	58.1	60.6	60.4	61.7
Alberta	64.3	69.5	63.9	65.0
British Columbia	56.0	60.7	55.3	56.9
Canada	56.7	59.9	56.7	59.4

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201, *Historical Labour Force Statistics.*

Provincial Unemployment Rates, 1976-1986

	1976	1981	1983	1986
		%		
Newfoundland	13.3	13.9	18.8	20.0
Prince Edward Island	9.6	11.2	12.2	13.4
Nova Scotia	9.5	10.2	13.2	13.4
New Brunswick	11.0	11.5	14.8	14.4
Quebec	8.7	10.3	13.9	11.0
Ontario	6.2	6.6	10.4	7.0
Manitoba	4.7	5.9	9.4	7.7
Saskatchewan	3.9	4.7	7.4	7.7
Alberta	4.0	3.8	10.8	9.8
British Columbia	8.6	6.7	13.8	12.6
Canada	7.1	7.5	11.9	9.6

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-201, *Historical Labour Force Statistics.*

Employment by Industry, 1976-1986

	1976	1981	1983	1986
		000s		
Goods-producing sector				
Men	2,594	2,781	2,452	2,599
Women	668	799	757	818
Total	3,262	3,581	3,209	3,417
Service-producing sector				
Men	3,370	3,777	3,788	4,058
Women	2,845	3,648	3,738	4,160
Total	6,215	7,425	7,525	8,217
Total employment	9,477	11,006	10,734	11,634

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages,* and 71-001, *The Labour Force.*

Unemployment rates also vary widely by province. In 1986, they ranged from 20.0% in Newfoundland to 7.0% in Ontario. Changes in provincial unemployment rates in the 1980s have generally mirrored those in employment, but in the opposite direction. The unemployment rate increased in all provinces between 1981 and 1983, however, the increases were particularly large in Alberta and British Columbia. In Alberta, the unemployment rate nearly tripled, increasing from 3.8% in 1981 to 10.8% in 1983. In the same period, the unemployment rate in British Columbia more than doubled from 6.7% to 13.8%.

During the post-recession recovery period, unemployment rates have fallen furthest in Ontario and Quebec. In Ontario, the unemployment rate fell from 10.4% in 1983 to 7.0% in 1986, while in Quebec the rate declined from 13.9% to 11.0%. Unemployment rates declined modestly in the western provinces, with the exception of that in Saskatchewan in this period. Rates in all four western provinces in 1986, however, were still well above pre-recession figures. On the other hand, unemployment rates in the Atlantic provinces did not follow the overall post-recession decline. The unemployment rates in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick were virtually the same in 1986 as in 1983, while they increased in Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island during this period.

Changes in the Distribution of Employment by Industry

For a number of decades, employment has been shifting from the goods-producing sector to the service sector.[1] Between 1976 and 1986, total employment in the service sector increased by over 2 million. In the same period, employment in the goods-producing industries increased by only 155,000. As a result, by 1986, the service sector's share of total employment had increased to 71%, up from 65% in 1976. +

The recession in the early 1980s had a particularly disruptive effect on employment in the goods-producing sector. Employment in this sector had increased by 9.8% between 1976 and 1981; however, in the 1981-1983 period, employment in the goods-producing industries fell by 372,000 or 10.4%. Although employment in the goods-producing industries subsequently rebounded in the post-recession years, total employment in these industries in 1986 was still 4.6% below what it had been in 1981.

Labour Force Estimates, Annual Averages. 1946 - 1986

	Population aged 15 and over	Labour Force			Participation rate	Unemployment rate	Employment/ population ratio
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
	000s					%	
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950[1]	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966[2]	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	61.1	7.1	56.7
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	61.6	8.1	56.6
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	62.7	8.3	57.5
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	63.4	7.4	58.7
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	64.1	7.5	59.3
1981	18,375	11,904	11,006	898	64.8	7.5	59.9
1982	18,664	11,958	10,644	1,314	64.1	11.0	57.0
1983	18,917	12,183	10,734	1,448	64.4	11.9	56.7
1984	19,148	12,399	11,000	1,399	64.8	11.3	57.4
1985	19,372	12,639	11,311	1,328	65.2	10.5	58.4
1986	19,594	12,870	11,634	1,236	65.7	9.6	59.4

[1] Includes Newfoundland beginning in 1950.
[2] Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

[1] The service sector includes industries such as transportation, trade, finance, real estate, community, business and personal service, and public administration. The goods-producing industries include agriculture, other primary industries such as forestry, fishing and mining, manufacturing, and construction.

+ These topics are covered in more detail in previous editions of **Canadian Social Trends.** Part-time work was discussed in the Autumn, 1986 edition. Employment among men aged 55-64 and the industrial shift in employment were featured in the Spring, 1987 edition.

Doreen Duchesne *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

WORK INJURIES

by Francis Pring-Mill

Approximately one million Canadians are injured in work-related accidents every year. About half of these injuries are sufficiently severe that employees need to take time off work to recover. In 1985, there were 554,793 work-related injuries in Canada for which claims, either for time-loss or permanent disability, were accepted by provincial Workers' Compensation Boards. This was an increase of 9% over the total in 1984.

Most work-related injuries in 1985 involved sprains and strains (39%), contusions, crushing and bruising (17%), and cuts, lacerations, and punctures (11%). The greatest number of injuries involved the back (27%), followed by the wrist, hand, or fingers (22%), and the ankle, foot, or toes (10%). There is a large variety in the type and severity of injuries. In 1985, for example, there were 1,512 work-related amputations, 96% of which involved hands or fingers. Over half (51%) of these amputations were caused by machines.

The most frequent sources of injury were working surfaces such as floors, ramps, and platforms (12%), metal items, including nails, nuts, bolts, and metal plates and rods (11%), and bodily motion (10%). The most common events resulting in work injuries were overexertion (26%), being struck by an object (18%), and falls (14%).

Special tabulations from the Work Injuries Data Base indicate that in 1985, 14% of all fractures were sustained by workers in construction trades occupations, 12% in product fabricating, assembling, and repairing occupations, 9% in service occupations, and 7% in machining and related occupations.

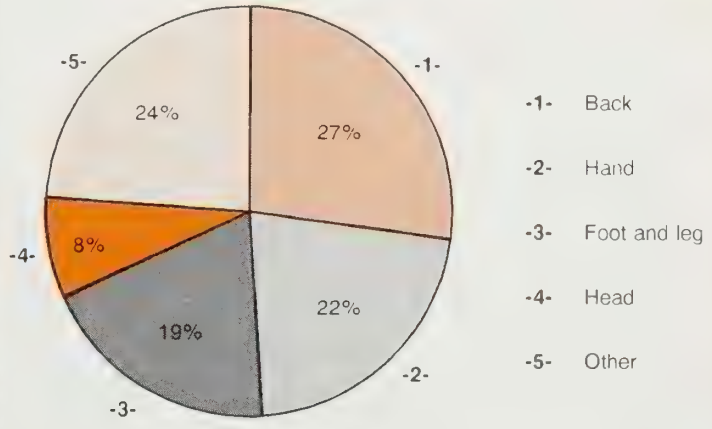
National Work Injuries Statistics Program

The data in this article are from Statistics Canada's National Work Injuries Statistics Program. The objective of the program is to provide information on occupational health and safety in Canada. This program is a co-operative arrangement between Statistics Canada and the provincial Workers' Compensation Boards. The provincial Boards supply data on accepted time-loss claims for work injuries, while Statistics Canada co-ordinates the establishment and maintenance of standards, and is responsible for the processing and release of data.

The Program's first regular publication, *Work Injuries 1983-1985* (Statistics Canada, Catalogue 72-208) was released in March, 1987. It represents a census of all time-loss injury and illness claims which were accepted by provincial Workers' Compensation Boards. Special tabulations based on user specifications are available on request.



Parts of the Body Affected in Work Injuries, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 72-208, *Work Injuries,1983-1985.*

Workers' Compensation in Canada

Programs to protect workers injured in the course of their employment were established in Canada as early as 1915. Today, almost all workers are protected by legislation against the consequences of industrial injury and illness.

In Canada, workers' compensation is based on the principle of collective liability, and may be viewed as a type of compulsory insurance. Under this system, all eligible employees are protected, but they are precluded from taking legal action against their employer.

With the exception of exemptions specified in the various acts in different provinces, coverage for employers under workers' compensation is compulsory. The exemptions may include small businesses and industries such as agriculture and domestic service.



As a rule, however, exempted undertakings can apply for voluntary coverage.

The provincial Workers' Compensation Boards are responsible for administering the acts in their respective jurisdictions. Important functions, in this context, are adjudicating whether or not workers are eligible for benefits, and deciding on appropriate rehabilitation plans.

Francis Pring-Mill *is an analyst with the Labour Division, Statistics Canada.*

Work Injuries 1983-1985

A new publication bringing together occupational health information from across Canada.

A single, comprehensive document now provides detailed information on the nature and extent of work-related injuries and illnesses in Canada. If you are interested or working in the occupational and safety field, **Work Injuries, 1983-1985** will be an essential reference tool.

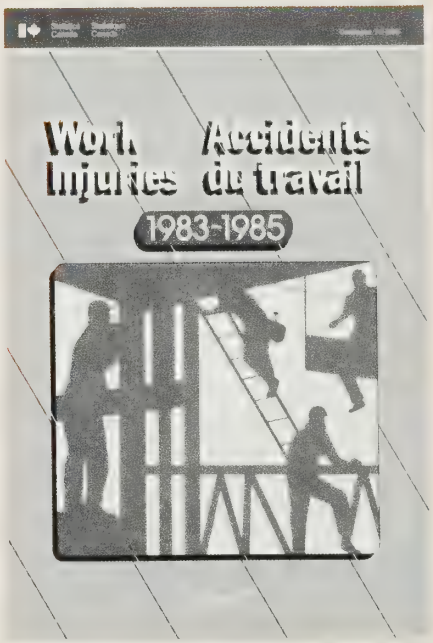
Fifty pages of text and tables present statistics on:
- 28 natures of injury,
- 16 types of injury,
- 9 parts of body,
- 50 sources of injury,
- 16 types of accident.

In addition, the data are tabulated by occupation, age and sex of the injured worker, as well as by province and industry of the employer.

Work Injuries 1983-1985 catalogue #72-208; $17 in Canada, $18 outside Canada.

Order from: Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6 or call collect at (613) 993-7276.

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For more information or to enquire about custom data retrievals please contact: Francis Pring-Mill (613) 991-4040 or Horst Stiebert (613) 991-4044 of Statistics Canada, Labour Division.

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Social Indicators

	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
Population								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	23,747.3	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,631.8	24,884.5	25,124.1	25,359.8	25,591.1[1]
Annual growth (%)	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9
Immigration	82,939	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	80,793[p]	91,014[p]
Emigration	63,559	51,060	43,609	44,823	49,869	48,397	47,967[p]	47,050[p]
Family								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.5	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.8[p]
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.9	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	7.5[p]
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	652	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918
Labour Force								
Total employment (000s)	10,395	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311	11,634
– goods sector (000s)	3,474	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348	3,417
– services sector (000s)	6,921	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963	8,217
Total unemployment (000s)	836	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328	1,236
Unemployment rate	7.4	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.6
Part-time employment %	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.6
Women's participation rate	49.0	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3	55.1
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	32.6	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	*	*
Income								
Median family income – 1985 $	35,158	36,400	35,450	34,026	33,454	33,431	34,076	*
% of families with low income	13.1	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	13.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	63.3	–	63.6	64.0	–	65.5	64.9	*
Education								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,184.7	5,106.3	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.9	4,943.4[p]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	623.5	643.4	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	797.4[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,803	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	*
Government expenditure on education (1982 $000,000)	22,598.2	22,512.7	23,082.3	23,180.8	24,031.6	23,208.1	24,122.6	23,581.2
Health								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
– men	21.4	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	*
– women	7.0	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	*
% of population 15 + who are regular cigarette smokers – men	38.6	–	36.7	–	34.0	–	33.1	30.8
– women	30.1	–	28.9	–	28.3	–	27.8	25.8
Government expenditure on health (1982 $000,000)	18,456.1	19,564.9	20,831.2	21,672.2	22,745.3	23,846.0	24,078.1	24,942.0
Justice								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
– violent	623	648	666	685	692	714	749	798[p]
– property	5,013	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,655[p]
– homicide	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.2[p]
Government								
Expenditures on social programes[2] (1982 $000,000)	91,126.7	95,340.7	97,499.7	104,289.8	110,095.4	111,700.9	114,838.2	116,467.9
– as a % of total expenditures	59.3	57.7	57.3	58.1	59.9	58.4	58.4	58.9
– as a % of GDP	24.0	24.7	24.7	27.8	28.7	27.8	27.7	27.5
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,332.9	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,145.4	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,547.6	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9[p]
Economic Indicators								
GDP (1981 $) – annual % change	+3.9	+1.5	+3.7	-3.3	+3.1	+5.5	+4.0	+3.1
Annual inflation rate (%)	9.2	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1
Urban housing starts	151,717	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863

– Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.
[1] Estimates for the years 1982 to 1986 will be revised in the fall of 1987 to take into account the 1986 Census results.
[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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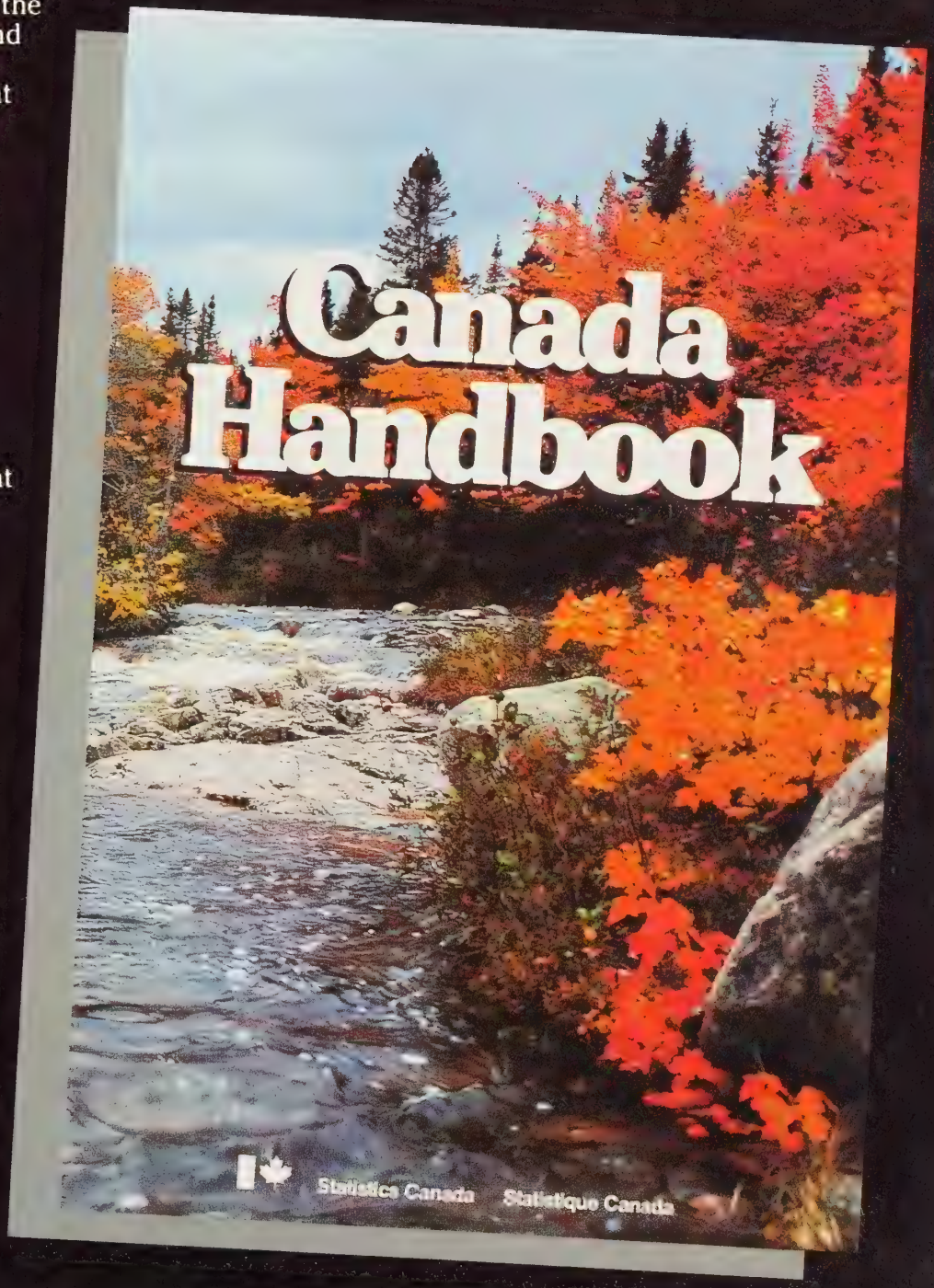
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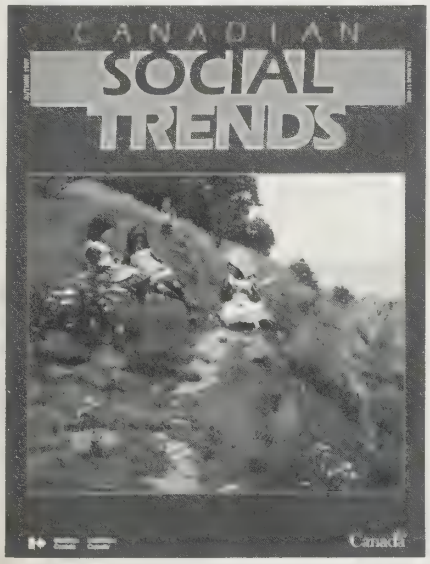
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by William Brymner Collection: National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa

ISSN 0831-5698

TYING THE KNOT: AN OVERVIEW OF MARRIAGE RATES IN CANADA

by Dhruva Nagnur and Owen Adams

Despite the widely held belief that marriage is losing its attraction and is being replaced by new, less rigid forms of conjugal union, marriage continues to be a popular institution in Canadian society. While both the marriage rate, and the probability of ever marrying have declined in Canada in recent years, the great majority of Canadian men and women – around 9 in 10 – continue to marry at least once in their lifetime.

Historical Fluctuations in the Marriage Rate

The marriage rate in Canada has been characterized by a series of cyclical movements since the end of the First World War. The marriage rate rose in the 1920s, but then dropped precipitously in the early 1930s, falling to an all-time low of fewer than 6 marriages per 1,000 population in 1932. Then in the latter part of the 1930s, the marriage rate increased, reaching highs of 11 marriages per 1,000 population in 1942 and again in 1946.

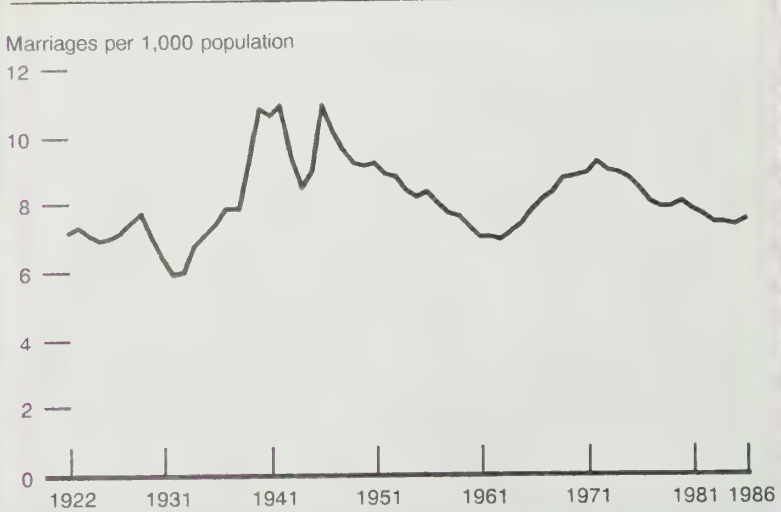
In the decade and a half following the end of the Second World War, in conjunction with the post-war baby boom, the marriage rate once again declined. By the early 1960s, the marriage rate had fallen to around 7 marriages per 1,000 population. Then in the 1960s, the marriage rate again increased, climbing to almost 9 marriages per 1,000 population in the early 1970s.

Since the early 1970s, the marriage rate has again declined. By 1985, it had fallen to just over 7 marriages per 1,000 population, a level approaching historic lows. The decline in the marriage rate in the last decade and a half occurred despite the fact that the large population born during the baby boom of the 1950s was in the age group in which Canadians have traditionally been the most likely to marry.



The largest number of marriages in Canadian history – over 200,000 – occurred in 1972. The number of marriages has gradually declined since; in 1985, there were 184,000 marriages in Canada.

Marriage Rate, 1922-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, *Marriages and Divorces*.

Common-law Unions

In 1981, there were 350,000 common-law unions in Canada +. These represented 6% of all husband-wife type families. Also in that year, 9% of the unmarried population aged 15 and over was living as a partner in a common-law union.

The 1981 estimate of common-law unions, however, only indicates the number of these unions at that time, and does not reflect how many Canadians had ever lived in such an arrangement. Data from Statistics Canada's 1984 Family History Survey indicated that 17% of the population aged 18-65 had, at one time or another, lived in a common-law union. Different age cohorts, however, have formed common-law unions at varying rates. For example, almost 22% of Canadians aged 20-24 at the time of the survey in 1984 had been a partner in a common-law arrangement. In comparison, less than 1% of those aged 44 and over had been involved in such a relationship when they were in their early twenties.

+ For more details on common-law unions in Canada see the Autumn 1986 issue of **Canadian Social Trends.**

Remarriages

The percentage of marriages in which one partner is marrying for at least the second time has increased in recent years. In both 1955 and 1965, less than 10% of both brides and grooms were marrying for the second or subsequent time. In 1985, however, more than 20% of marriages of both men and women were second or later marriages. Divorced persons accounted for much of the increase in the number of second or higher order marriages in this period. Between 1975 and 1985, for example, the number of marriages in which at least one of the partners was divorced more than doubled, while the number of marriages in which one or both partners was widowed actually declined.

Percentage Distribution of Brides and Grooms by First or Later Order Marriage, 1955-1985

	1955	1965	1975	1985
		%		
Brides				
First marriage	91.5	91.1	85.4	79.7
Second or later marriage	8.5	8.9	14.6	20.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Grooms				
First marriage	91.7	91.5	84.5	78.2
Second or later marriage	8.3	8.5	15.5	21.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total number of marriages	127,777	145,519	197,585	184,096

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, *Marriages and Divorces.*

Age-specific Marriage Rates for Women, 1931-1985

	Marriages per 1,000 women aged									Standardized[1] rate for women aged 15 and over
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55 and over	
1931	29.8	65.1	32.7	12.2	6.4	4.2	3.4	2.5	1.5	18.1
1936	29.4	70.8	41.9	16.1	7.0	3.8	3.0	2.1	1.4	20.1
1941	42.5	101.8	56.5	23.2	11.0	6.0	4.2	3.1	1.6	28.5
1946	52.6	109.3	48.5	20.9	11.1	6.7	5.0	3.6	2.0	29.7
1951	60.5	100.1	36.0	15.4	8.7	6.5	5.2	4.0	2.1	27.4
1956	65.4	99.3	32.6	12.2	7.1	5.3	4.6	3.8	2.1	26.9
1961	57.8	91.5	24.7	10.0	5.6	4.2	4.0	3.2	2.2	23.6
1966	52.5	99.6	25.9	9.1	5.3	4.0	3.8	3.3	2.2	24.0
1971	50.3	97.7	27.5	11.4	6.8	5.3	4.7	4.3	2.6	24.4
1976	40.6	81.4	29.5	13.3	8.1	5.7	4.8	4.0	2.4	21.7
1981	25.1	75.7	34.1	14.0	8.7	6.1	4.4	3.5	1.8	19.8
1985	16.1	67.6	38.9	17.3	9.5	6.6	4.8	3.4	1.7	18.6

[1] Standardized to 1981 population.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, *Marriages and Divorces*, derived tabulations.

Age-specific Marriage Rates for Men, 1931-1985

	Marriages per 1,000 men aged									Standardized[1] rate for men aged 15 and over
	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55 and over	
1931	3.1	50.9	52.3	24.3	11.9	7.0	4.7	3.7	2.8	18.4
1936	2.9	50.4	65.1	31.7	14.3	6.9	4.6	3.3	2.5	20.7
1941	5.4	80.0	84.5	41.9	20.0	10.7	6.6	5.0	3.1	29.4
1946	9.6	95.4	79.0	36.5	18.5	10.9	7.2	5.0	3.7	30.7
1951	12.5	101.6	62.9	26.6	13.2	8.3	6.5	5.3	3.8	28.2
1956	12.8	104.3	60.4	21.1	10.0	6.2	5.2	4.2	3.4	27.0
1961	12.0	103.5	51.1	18.1	8.5	5.0	4.1	3.5	3.3	25.0
1966	12.6	110.8	56.0	17.6	8.4	5.2	4.1	3.7	3.3	26.5
1971	12.7	107.0	51.1	18.4	9.9	6.9	5.6	5.1	4.1	26.2
1976	10.9	83.7	47.2	20.1	11.6	7.8	6.3	5.1	3.9	23.0
1981	5.7	65.7	49.5	22.1	12.6	8.4	6.1	5.0	3.0	20.4
1985	3.1	49.4	50.9	24.3	13.4	9.0	6.7	5.1	3.3	18.7

[1] Standardized to 1981 population.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, *Marriages and Divorces*, derived tabulations.

Marriage Rates of Different Age Groups

The marriage rates for both men and women under the age of 25 have declined since the early 1970s. In contrast, the rates for some older groups increased in this period. There has been a particularly significant decline in the marriage rate for men aged 20-24. In 1971, there were 107 marriages per 1,000 men in this age group; in 1985, however, there were less than 50. In fact, the marriage rate for men aged 20-24, which in 1971 had been twice that for men aged 25-29, had fallen below the rate for this latter group by 1985. As well, in 1985, the marriage rate for males aged 15-19, at just 3 marriages per 1,000 men in this age range, was less than one-quarter what it had been in 1971.

Among young women, the marriage rate for those aged 20-24 declined from 98 to 68 between 1971 and 1985. In the same period, the number of marriages per 1,000 females aged 15-19 fell from 50 to 16.

On the other hand, marriage rates for both men and women in their 30s and 40s increased somewhat between 1971 and 1985. The marriage rate for women aged 25-29 also increased in this period.

Average Age at Marriage

The average age of Canadian brides and grooms has been increasing. Prior to 1975, the average age of all women marrying was under 25 years, while for men it was just over 27 years. By 1985, however, the average age at marriage had increased to 27.4 years for brides and to 30.0 years for bridegrooms.

The same pattern holds when only those marrying for the first time are considered. In 1985, the average age of women marrying for the first time was 24.6 years, up from less than 22.5 years in the early 1970s. For men marrying for the first time, the average age increased from under 25 years in the early 1970s to 26.7 in 1985. The difference between the average age of men and women marrying for the first time, a little over 2 years, however, did not change appreciably in this period.

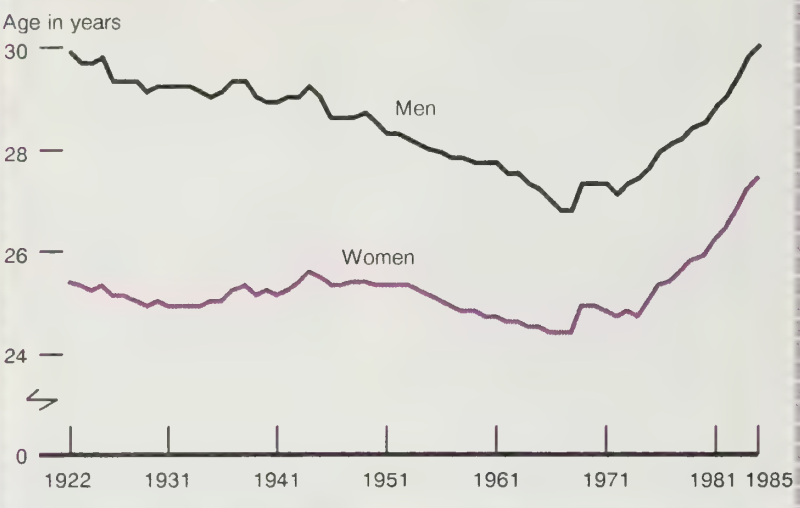
Chances of Marrying

The probability[1] of never-married persons ever marrying declined for all age groups between 1971 and 1981. However, for most Canadians, particularly those aged 25 and under, the probability of marrying was still high in 1981.

There was close to a 90% probability that persons aged 15 in 1981 would marry at some point in their lives. This figure, however, was down from 95% in 1971. Never-married men aged 25 in 1981 had an 82% probability of marrying, while for comparable women the probability was 75%. In 1971, these figures had been 88% for men and 80% for women.

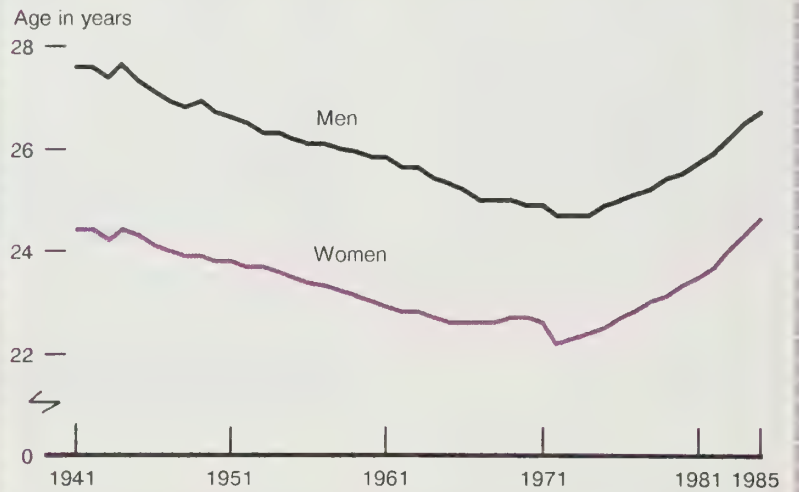
[1] The probabilities discussed here are the results of the application of standard life table techniques to the age-specific marriage rates for men and women prevailing in the year under consideration. The assumption is that this pattern of marriage will continue unchanged in future years. Hence, for example, the probabilities for 1971 are based on the assumption that 1971 propensities by age and sex would continue in the future.

Average Age at Marriage of Men and Women, 1922-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, *Marriages and Divorces.*

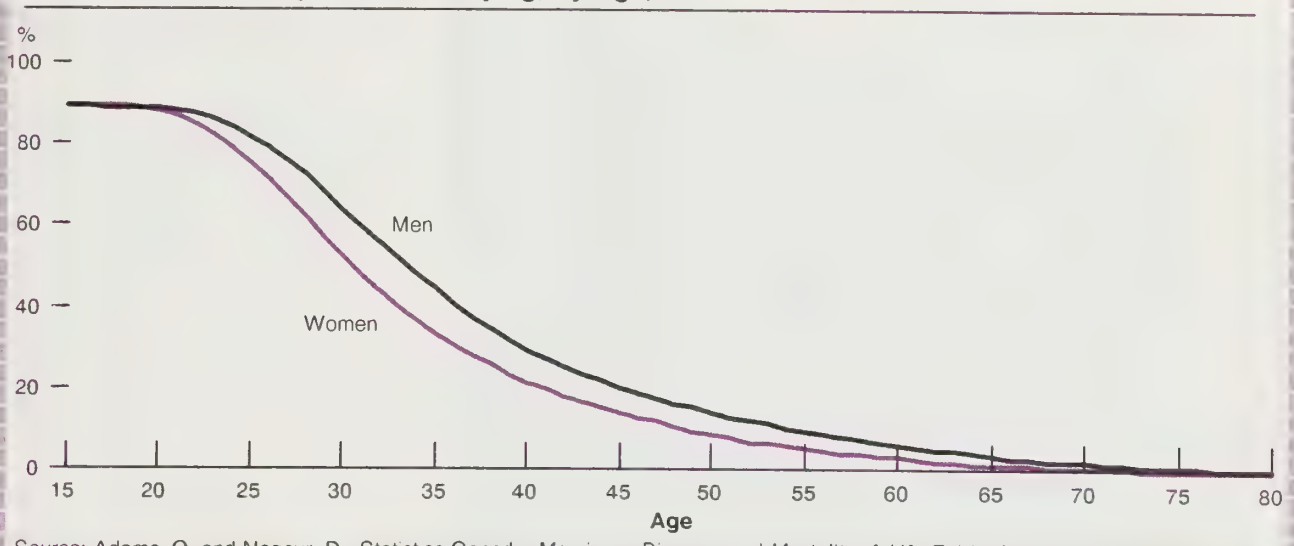
Average Age of Men and Women Marrying for the First Time, 1941-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, *Marriages and Divorces.*



Cumulative Probability of Ever Marrying, by Age, 1981



Source: Adams, O. and Nagnur, D., Statistics Canada, *Marriage, Divorce and Mortality: A Life Table Analysis for Canada and Regions, 1981-1982,* forthcoming.

The likelihood of marrying, however, falls significantly for never-married persons at successive ages over 25. This decline is particularly steep for women. There was only a 52% probability that a 30-year-old, never-married women in 1981 would eventually marry, while the probability for a woman aged 35 was just 33%. For never-married men, the probability of marrying was 64% for those aged 30 in 1981 and 44% for those aged 35.

Religious Inter-marriage

The proportion of marriages in which the spouses belong to different religious denominations is increasing, though the majority of marriages are still between persons

Probability of Marrying for Never-married Men and Women, By Age, 1971, 1976 and 1981

	Men			Women		
	1971	1976	1981	1971	1976	1981
At age			%			
15	95.3	92.7	89.1	95.1	92.8	89.7
20	94.9	92.3	88.2	93.3	90.8	88.1
25	88.1	85.2	81.7	79.6	77.8	75.0
30	70.6	68.7	63.8	58.3	57.3	52.2
35	51.0	50.4	44.1	37.2	39.4	33.4
40	36.3	35.5	29.1	27.0	25.8	21.5
45	25.4	24.9	20.0	17.6	17.2	13.9

Source: Adams, O., and Nagnur, D., Statistics Canada, *Marriage, Divorce and Mortality: A Lifetable Analysis for Canada and Regions: 1980-1982,* forthcoming.

of the same religious affiliation. In 1981, 44% of all marriages involved couples of different religious denominations, up from around 30% in 1951 and 1961.

The increase in the percentage of marriages involving spouses belonging to different religious denominations was particularly sharp for Roman Catholics. Between 1951 and 1981, the proportion of Roman Catholic marriages involving spouses of different denominations increased from 11% to 32%. Roman Catholics, however, were still characterized by a lower proportion of inter-denominational marriages than the major Protestant groups. In 1981, the majority of Anglican (66%), Baptist (60%) and United Church (54%) marriages involved spouses of different denominations.

Summary

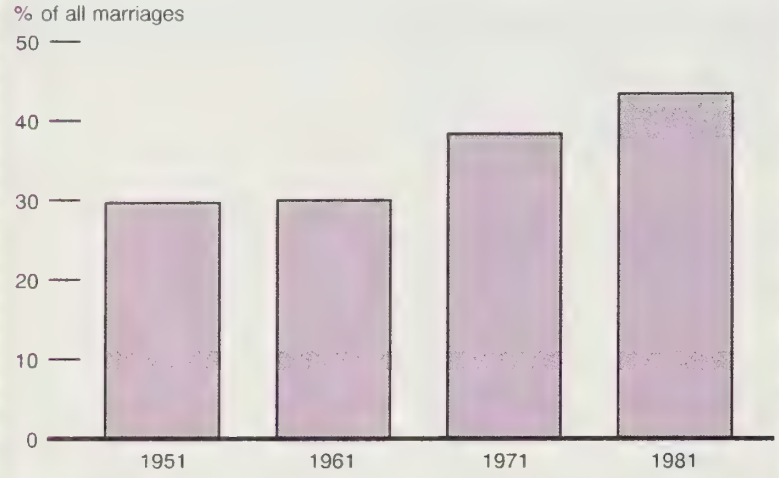
Contrary to public opinion, marriage as an institution is still very popular in Canada. While the marriage rate has declined in the last decade and a half, the overwhelming majority of Canadians still marry at least once in their lifetime.

Recently, however, there have been several changes in the profile of marriage in Canada. The percentage of marriages in which one partner is marrying for at least the second time has more than doubled, and the average age at which Canadians are getting married has increased. In addition, levels of religious intermarriage have grown.

The probability of ever marrying continues to be high for both men and women, although the chances have fallen somewhat in recent years. The probability of ever marrying, though, declines significantly at successive ages for never-married persons over age 25. This decline is greater for women than for men.

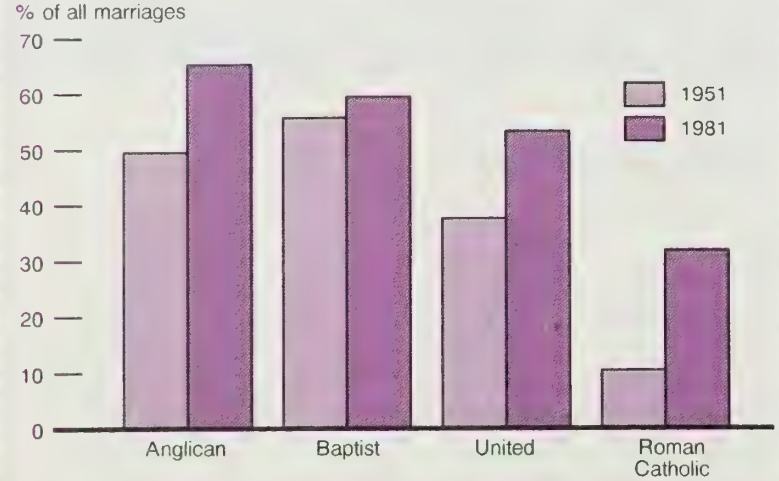
The authors are Statistics Canada analysts, **Dhruva Nagnur** *with the Social and Economic Studies Division, and* **Owen Adams** *with the Health Division.*

Marriages of Spouses Belonging to Different Religious Denominations, 1951-1981



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, *Marriages and Divorces.*

Marriages of Spouses Belonging to Different Religious Denominations, by Selected Denominations, 1951 and 1981



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, *Marriages and Divorces.*

EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS OF ELDERLY CANADIANS

by Suzanne Méthot

There has been much debate recently on the abolition of mandatory retirement in Canada. Mandatory retirement was originally introduced to improve the well-being of elderly Canadians by controlling the exploitation of older workers. In recent years, however, it has increasingly been viewed as an impediment to those aged 65 and over willing and able to work.

Some of the questions that have been discussed in connection with the debate on mandatory retirement include: To what extent are Canadians aged 65 and over active in the labour force? Has the proportion of the elderly who are still working changed in recent years? What kinds of work are the elderly involved in? What effect would the elimination of mandatory retirement have on the labour force participation rate of older Canadians?



Trends in the Employment of Canadians Aged 65 and Over

The level of employment among elderly Canadians has declined significantly in the last 30 years. In the mid-1950s, close to 20% of the population aged 65 and over were employed. By 1986, however, just 7% of the total elderly population were working.

In 1986, 175,000 Canadians aged 65 and over were employed. Elderly workers however, made up only 1.5% of all employed Canadians in 1986; this was down from 4.0% in 1956.

To a large extent, the decline in

employment levels among the population aged 65 and over can be attributed to major improvements in the support system available to the older population in the last several decades. Central to this development was the introduction of programmes such as universal Old Age Security, the means-tested Guaranteed Income Supplements, and the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans. Improvements in employer pension plans and the introduction and expansion of comprehensive medical care insurance also played a role.

Differences in the Employment of Elderly Men and Women

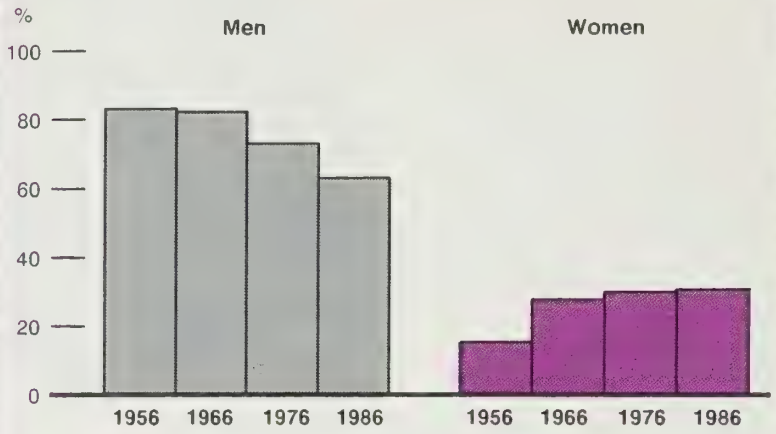
Employment patterns of the elderly are very different for men and women. A considerably greater percentage of men than women aged 65 and over are employed. Levels of employment, however, have declined sharply among elderly men, whereas they have remained largely unchanged among elderly women.

In the mid-1950s, one third of all men aged 65 and over were still working. By 1975, however, fewer than 20% were working, and in 1986, less than 12% of elderly men were still on the job. In contrast, less than 4% of women aged 65 and over had jobs outside their homes in 1986, a figure only slightly lower than that recorded in the mid-1950s.

Employment levels are considerably higher for people in the 65-69 age range than for those aged 70 and over. In 1986, 18% of men aged 65-69 had jobs compared with 8% of those aged 70 and over. Between 1975 and 1986, however, the decline in the employment rate was higher among men aged 65-69. In this period, the percentage of men aged 65-69 with jobs declined by 10 percentage points, while there was just a 3 percentage-point drop for men aged 70 and over.

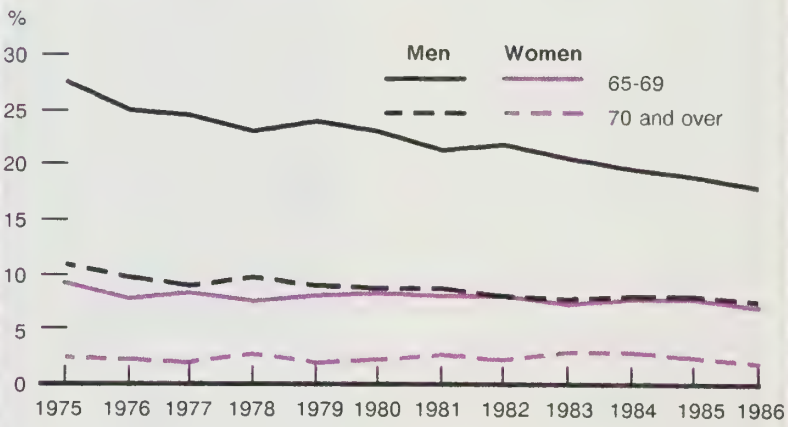
Among women, 7% of those aged 65-69 had jobs outside the home in 1986, compared with just 2% of those aged 70 and over. The figure for women aged 65-69 was down 2 percentage points from 1975; that for women aged 70 and over, declined by less than half a percentage point in this period.

Percentage of Men and Women Aged 55-64 Who Were Employed, 1956-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, and The Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

Percentage of Men and Women Aged 65-69 and 70 and Over Who Were Employed, 1975-1986



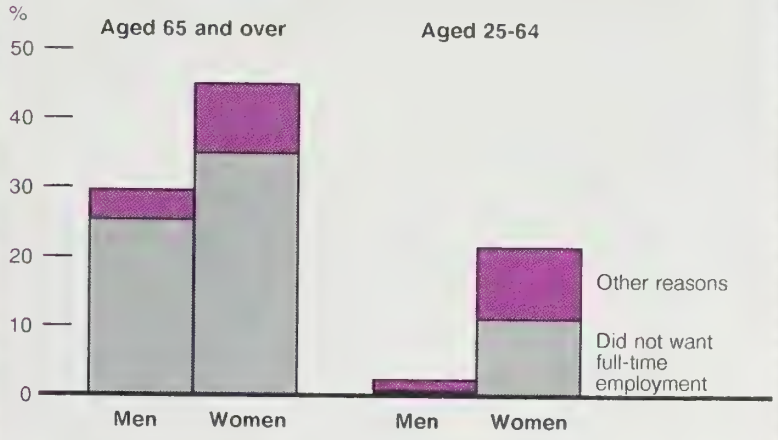
Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*.

Part-time Employment among Elderly Canadians

A considerably larger proportion of elderly workers than workers under the age of 65 are employed part-time. In 1986, 30% of employed men and 45% of employed women aged 65 and over worked part-time. In comparison, in the employed population aged 25-64, just 3% of men and 22% of women were part-timers. As well, the proportion of employed persons aged 65 and over working part-time has increased since the mid-1970s. In 1975, 20% of employed elderly men and 34% of working women aged 65 and over had been part-time workers.

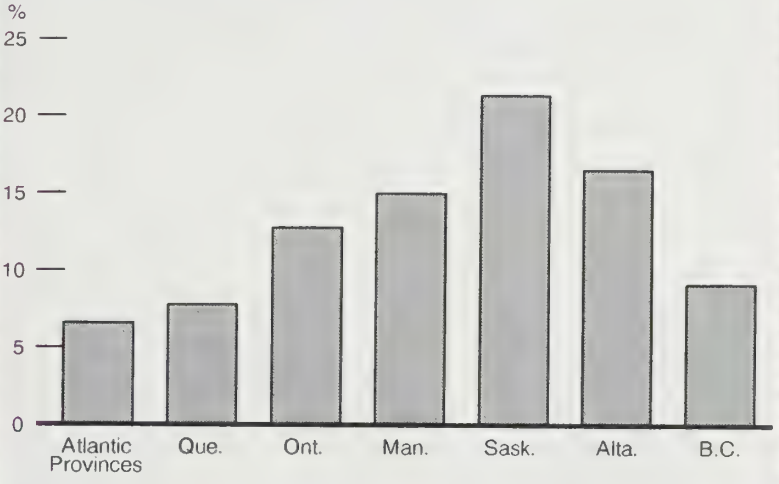
The majority of elderly part-time workers, however, work part-time by choice. In 1986, 85% of men and 79% of women aged 65 and over working part-time did not want full-time work. In contrast, of part-time employees aged 25-64, 22% of men

Part-time Employment as a Percentage of Total Employment, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

Percentage of Men Aged 65 and Over Who Were Employed, by Region, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001, *The Labour Force.*

and 52% of women did not want full-time jobs.

Other Differences in the Employment Profile of Elderly Workers

A much greater proportion of the employment of persons aged 65 and over, compared with that for younger workers, is in agriculture. In addition, among non-agricultural workers, the elderly are more heavily concentrated in service industries, and a greater percentage are self-employed.

In 1986, 27% of employed men aged 65 and over and 12% of employed elderly women worked in agriculture. In comparison, of the employed population under age 65, just 5% of men and 3% of women were agricultural workers.

In the non-agricultural work force, 79% of elderly men and 91% of women aged 65 and over were employed in the service sector in 1986. The comparable figures for workers under age 65 were 64% for men and 86% for women.

In addition, of employed elderly persons in 1986, 21% of men and 18% of women worked on their own. This compares with just 5% for both men and women aged 25-64. At the same time, 6% of the elderly male work force and 3% of that for women aged 65 and over were employers. In contrast, 4% of employed men aged 25-64 and 1% of comparable women were employers. On the other hand, while over 90% of both employed men and women aged 25-64 were salaried employees, only around three-quarters of workers aged 65 and over in 1986 were salaried.

The Availability for Work of Elderly Not in the Labour Force

Very few elderly Canadians who are not in the labour force are available for work. In March 1986, less than 1% of those aged 65 and over who were not in the labour force reported being available for work. In comparison, 6% of those aged 45-64 who were not in the labour force indicated they were available for work.

Regional Variation in the Proportion of the Elderly Who Work

The percentage of Canadian men aged 65 and over with jobs varies widely by region. The highest levels of employment for elderly men are found in the Prairie Provinces, primarily because of the large agricultural sector in this region. In 1986, 21% of men aged 65 and over in Saskatchewan, along with 17% of those in Alberta, and 15% of those in Manitoba were employed. Close to 13% of elderly men in Ontario were employed in 1986, while less than 10% of those in British Columbia (9%), Quebec (8%) and the Atlantic Provinces (7%) had jobs that year. As well, the proportion of elderly men with jobs declined in all regions except Manitoba between 1975 and 1986.

Employment levels for elderly women are also highest in the Prairie region. There is, however, less regional variation in the proportion of women aged 65 and over who are employed than there is for elderly men. Around 5% of women aged 65



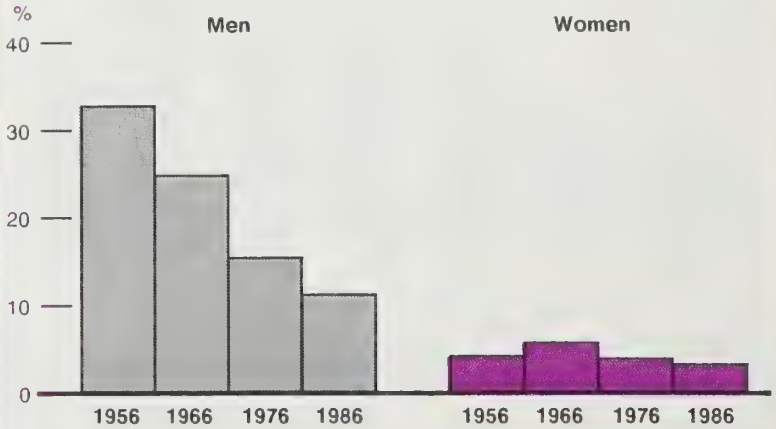
Trends in Employment Among the Population Aged 55-64

Trends in employment for the population aged 65 and over are consistent with those characteristic of the population aged 55-64 +. The percentage of men aged 55-64 with jobs, for example, has also declined dramatically in the last several decades. In 1986, 64% of men in this age range had jobs, down from 84% in 1956 and 74% in 1976.

Trends in the employment of women aged 55-64 differ considerably from those of men in this age range. The proportion of women aged 55-64 with jobs nearly doubled between 1956 and 1971, increasing from 16% to 30%. This percentage, however, has remained stable at around 30% since the early 1970s.

The proportion of employed women aged 55-64 who work part-time, however, has increased in recent years. The percentage of employed women in this age group working part-time grew from 19% in 1975 to 28% in 1986. In contrast, very few men aged 55-64 work part-time. In 1986, just 5% of employed men in this age group had part-time jobs. This represents a slight increase from 1975 when just under 3% of employed men aged 55-64 were part-timers.

Percentage of Men and Women Aged 65 and Over Who Were Employed, 1956-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*, and The Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

+ Employment trends among men aged 55-64 are described in more detail in the Spring, 1987 edition of **Canadian Social Trends.**

Mandatory Retirement Legislation in Canada

The human rights legislation of most Canadian provinces prohibits mandatory retirement before age 65, subject to legitimate occupational requirements such as those for firemen or policemen. Furthermore, mandatory retirement at age 65 or later has effectively been abolished in Quebec, Manitoba, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island. It is also in the process of being eliminated in a number of other provinces, as well as in employment under federal jurisdiction.

The federal government has been obliged to examine the validity of various federal statutes and regulations that require individuals to retire at a fixed age, because age discrimination is prohibited in the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms. As a result, regulations that provided for mandatory retirement at age 65 for federal public servants were repealed in June 1986. As well, the federal government is now considering amendments to the Canadian Human Rights Act and to other statutes that regulate federal employment. The latter will effectively abolish mandatory retirement in private sector employment subject to federal jurisdiction.

and over had jobs in the three Prairie Provinces in 1986, compared with 4% in Quebec, 3% in Ontario and British Columbia, and less than 2% in the Atlantic Provinces.

Conclusion

Overall employment levels for Canadians aged 65 and over, particularly those for men, have declined significantly in recent decades. At the same time, there have been major increases in voluntary part-time employment among those elderly Canadians who are still working. As well, only a small percentage of the population aged 65 and over not in the labour force report themselves as being available for work.

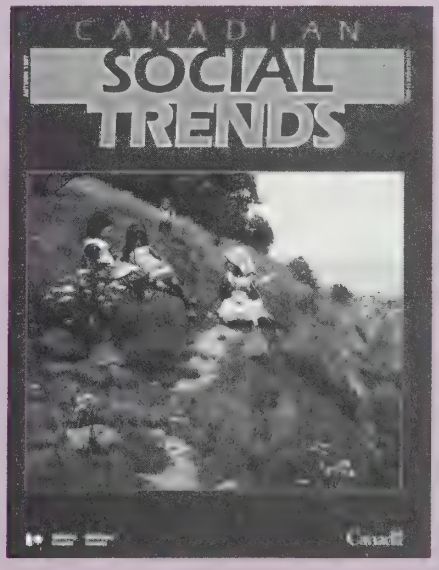
What these trends suggest is that if mandatory retirement based on age were completely eliminated in Canada, there would be very limited immediate upward pressure on labour force participation. This result, however, could be altered in the future by long-term changes in any or all of: the productive environment of workers; the functional capacity of elderly persons; the cultural value placed on work and leisure; and especially, the adequacy and security of retirement income flows.

Suzanne Méthot *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada*

THE SENIORS' BOOM

Dramatic Increases in Longevity and Better Prospects for Health

Statistics Canada Statistique Canada



Canada

Recent dramatic improvements in longevity have taken place among Canada's seniors. At the same time, they have shown indications of improving their health practices. Thus, Canada's seniors have good prospects not only of living longer, but also of enjoying better overall health.

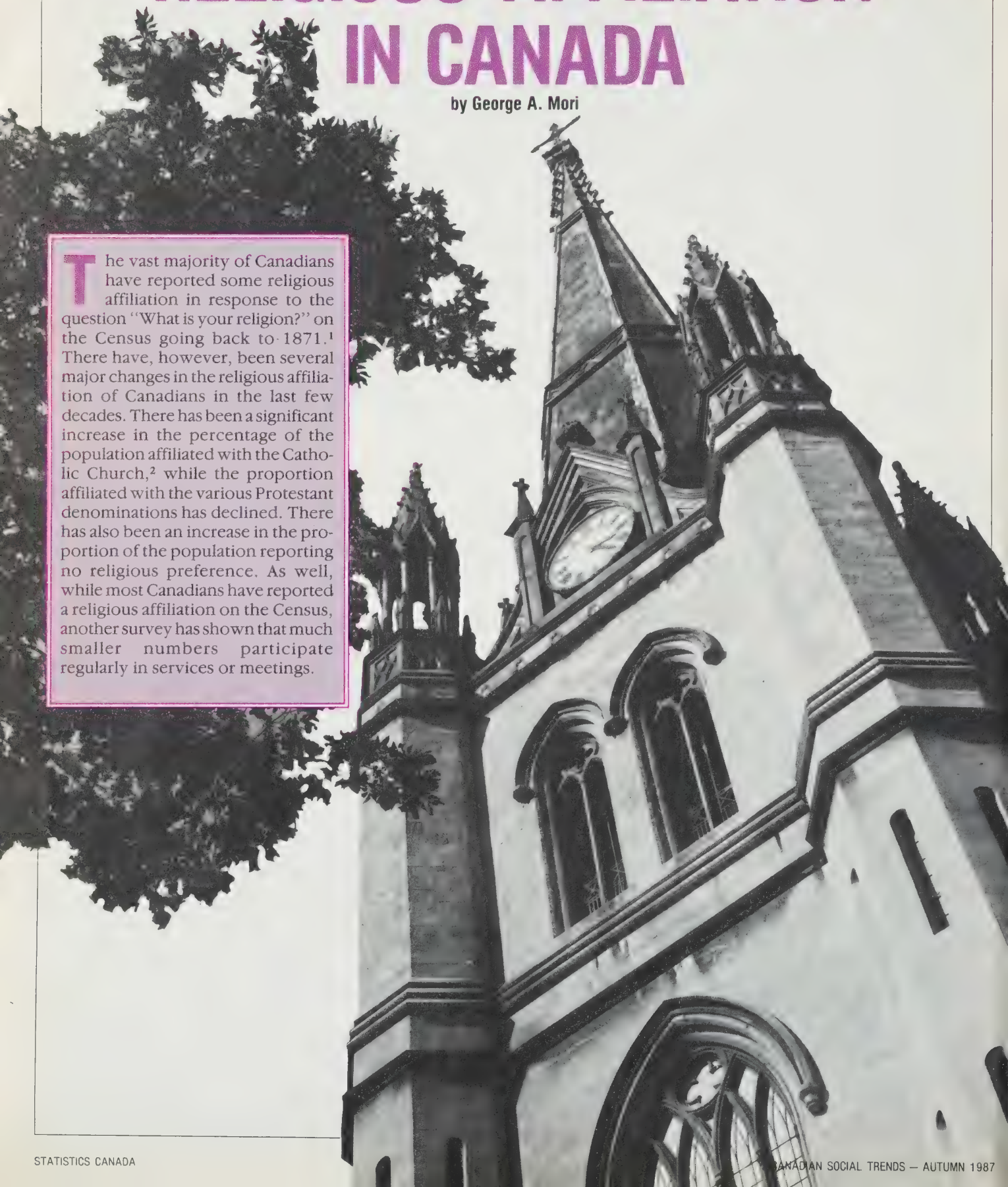
This is the message of **The Seniors' Boom**, a thought-provoking book which offers innovative approaches to analyzing data on aging. It charts Statistics Canada's latest projections of what will happen as the baby boomers pass through their senior years, as well as exploring aspects of lifestyles that appear to promote better health among the elderly.

With 48 pages of well-written text and 32 colourful charts, The Seniors' Boom is an essential reference for Canadians who need a clear and concise review of aging in the 1980s. A valuable purchase for health service professionals to help plan future health care facilities, marketers developing new products for the elderly, and private organizations and government agencies providing social services.

The Seniors' Boom: Dramatic Increases in Longevity and Better Prospects for Health, Catalogue No. 89-515, is available for $9.95 in Canada ($10.95 other countries) from Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6, telephone (613) 993-7276 or from your nearest Statistics Canada Reference Centre.

RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION IN CANADA

by George A. Mori



The vast majority of Canadians have reported some religious affiliation in response to the question "What is your religion?" on the Census going back to 1871.[1] There have, however, been several major changes in the religious affiliation of Canadians in the last few decades. There has been a significant increase in the percentage of the population affiliated with the Catholic Church,[2] while the proportion affiliated with the various Protestant denominations has declined. There has also been an increase in the proportion of the population reporting no religious preference. As well, while most Canadians have reported a religious affiliation on the Census, another survey has shown that much smaller numbers participate regularly in services or meetings.

Catholics and Protestants[3]

Historically, most Canadians have been either Protestant or Catholic. At the time of the 1871 Census, 98% of the population was affiliated with one of these two religious groups, and as recently as 1961, the figure was 96%. While this percentage has declined somewhat in recent years, 89% of the population was still either Protestant or Catholic in 1981.

A major change, however, has occurred in the distribution of the population between Protestant and Catholic. Through the late 1800s, and the first few decades of this century, Protestants clearly outnumbered Catholics. In the last several decades, though, this has been reversed. The percentage of the population affiliated with a Protestant denomination fell from 54% in 1931 to just over 40% in 1981. The proportion affiliated with the Catholic Church increased from 41% to 47% between 1931 and 1961, and remained at that level in both 1971 and 1981.

The drop in the percentage of the population affiliated with the Protestant denominations has been accounted for by declines in the mainline Protestant groups. In 1981, 35% of all Canadians were affiliated with either the Anglican, Baptist, Lutheran, Presbyterian or United Church denominations. This however, was down from 40% in 1971 and 49% in 1941. As well, with the exception of the Baptists, the total number of persons affiliated with each of these denominations actually declined between 1971 and 1981. In this period, the number of persons reporting themselves as Presbyterian fell 7%, while the number of Anglicans declined 4% and Lutherans 2%. The decline in the number affiliated with the United Church was less than 1%. In contrast, the number of persons reporting affiliation with the Baptist denomination increased 4% in this period.

On the other hand, the share of the population affiliated with Protestant denominations other than the mainline groups has increased. In 1981, these other Protestant denominations accounted for 6% of the Canadian population, up from 5% in 1971 and 3% in 1941. The fastest growing of these denominations has been the Pentecostal Church. In the 1971-1981 period, for example, the population affiliated with this denomination increased 54%, from 220,000 to 339,000.

At the same time, though, several other Protestant denominations have declined in numbers. These groups include the Unitarians, down 31% between 1971 and 1981, Doukhobors (−27%), and Jehovah's Witnesses (−17%). The decline in the number of Jehovah's Witnesses is particularly notable in that this group was among the fastest growing Christian denominations in Canada between 1941 and 1971. However, in the 1971-1981 period, the number of Canadians reporting affiliation with the Jehovah's Witnesses declined from 173,000 to 143,000.

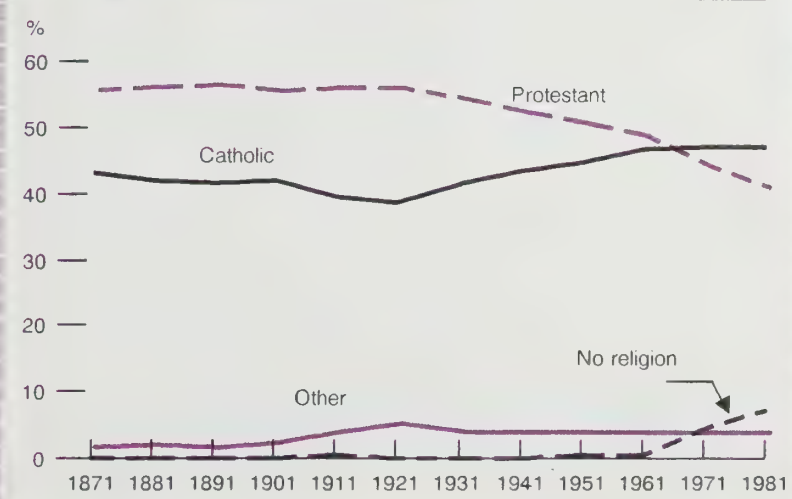
The Growth of the Population Reporting No Religious Preference

As recently as 1961, almost all Canadians reported some religious affiliation. That year, less than 1% of the population said they had no religious preference. By 1981, however, the percentage of Canadians with no religious preference had climbed to 7%.[4] The number of Canadians reporting no religious preference increased from less than 100,000 in 1961 to 1.8 million in 1981. Of the 1981 total, however, only 11,000 reported themselves as agnostics, while just 4,500 said they were atheists.

Other Religious Groupings

The religious mosaic in Canada is completed by a number of diverse groups including the Eastern Orthodox denominations of the Christian faith, Eastern Non-Christian religions, and Judaism, as well as several small groups which do not fall into any of the conventional religious categories. Together, in 1981, these religious groupings accounted for almost one million Canadians, or

The Religious Affiliation of Canadians, 1871-1981



Sources : Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, Catalogues 99-710, *Canada's Religious Composition*, and 92-912, *Religion*.

[1] This report refers only to the stated religious preference of Canadians, and not to their actual membership in a religious group. As such, these figures may differ significantly from membership figures reported by the various religious groups and denominations.

[2] Includes persons affiliated with the Roman, Polish National, and Ukrainian Catholic Churches. Roman Catholics, however, make up the vast majority of persons in this group - 98% in 1981.

[3] Persons belonging to Eastern Orthodox denominations are also Christians. For the purposes of this report, however, they are included in the category "Other Religious Groupings".

[4] Part of the increase in the reporting of no religious preference may be due to a change in the way census data are collected. In the 1961, and earlier Censuses, data were collected by interviewers; however, the 1971 and 1981 Censuses were conducted on a self-enumeration basis. There apparently is a greater tendency for respondents to indicate no religion in the latter context. The increases in the number of persons reporting no religious affiliation in the 1971 and 1981 Censuses and in the 1985 General Social Survey, however, are a fairly clear indicator of an overall trend.



about 4% of the total population. The overall percentage of the population affiliated with these groups has been relatively stable most of this century.

In 1981, there were 362,000 persons affiliated with the Christian Eastern Orthodox denominations. The vast majority of these, almost 90%, were Greek Orthodox. There were just over 300,000 persons affiliated with one of the Eastern Non-Christian religions in 1981. The largest of these groups in Canada were Islam, Hinduism, Sikhism, and Buddhism. Also, in 1981, there were 296,000 persons of Jewish faith in Canada. They represented 1.3% of the total population, down slightly from 1.5% in 1951.

There are several other small groups which cannot be classified into any of the conventional religious categories, but which are nonetheless oriented toward spiritual concerns. These include followers of Native Indian or Inuit religions, as well as New Thought-Unity-Metaphysical, Pagan, Fourth Way, and Theosophical groups. There was, however, a total of only 13,450 people.

Recent Trends in Religious Affiliation

The General Social Survey conducted by Statistics Canada in the fall of 1985 provided more recent data on the religious affiliation of Canadians. Because of differences between the 1985 General Social Survey and the 1981 Census,[5] direct comparisons between data from these two sources must be made with caution. Nevertheless, several general trends are apparent.

The shift in the distribution of the population between Protestant and Catholic appears to have continued. In the 1981-1985 period, the Roman Catholic population increased 3.5%, while the number of persons affiliated with the mainline Protestant denominations declined 3.0%. Persons reporting "other" religions, a category which includes the smaller Protestant denominations and other Catholics, increased 13.3%.

The secularization trend which first became evident in the 1971 Census also showed no sign of letting up in the early 1980s. Between 1981 and 1985, the number of Canadians aged 15 and over reporting no religious affiliation increased 57%, from 1.3 million to over 2.0 million. During the same period, there was no change in the number of adult Canadians reporting some religious affiliation. As a result, the percentage of the population aged 15 and over reporting no religious preference increased from 7% in 1981 to 10% in 1985.

[5] The religious questions asked on the General Social Survey and the Census were not identical. As well, while the Census covered the whole population, the General Social Survey included only the non-institutionalized population aged 15 and over living in the ten provinces.

ple affiliated with these groups in 1981.

The number of followers of cult or sect religions in Canada appears to be very minimal compared to the overwhelming number of Canadians who subscribe to Christian, Judaic, or Eastern Non-Christian religions, or who subscribe to no religion at all.

Provincial Variation in Religious Affiliation

Considerable variation exists in the religious make-up of the provinces. The vast majority of people in Quebec – 88% in 1981 – was affiliated with the Catholic Church. The only other province with a Catholic majority was New Brunswick. Protestants made up over half the total population in all other provinces in 1981, ranging from 51% in Prince Edward Island to 63% in New-

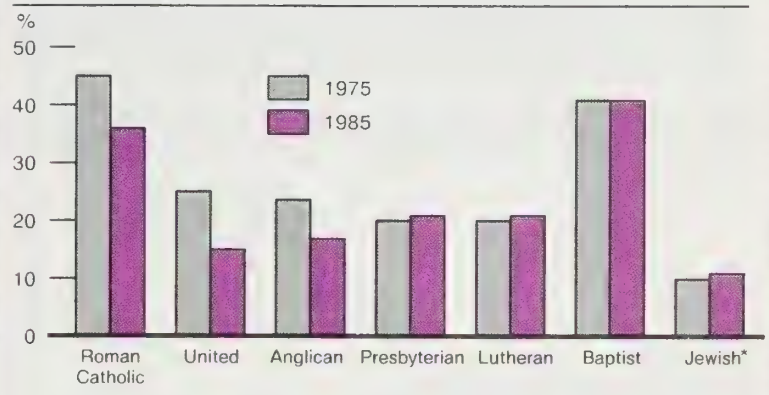
Involvement in Religious Activities

While most Canadians still report a religious affiliation, a much smaller proportion regularly attends religious observances. According to the General Social Survey, in 1985, only 30% of Canadians with a stated religious preference attended a religious service or meeting on a weekly basis, while a further 17% did so at least once a month. On the other hand, more than one in five persons (21%) with a stated religion never attended a service or meeting.

There was considerable variation among religious groups in the frequency of attendance at services. Among both Baptists and Roman Catholics, around 40% attended a religious service at least once a week, while over half attended at least once a month. More than half of those affiliated with Eastern Orthodox denominations also attended a service at least monthly. In comparison, much smaller percentages of those affiliated with the Anglican and United Churches, as well as those of Jewish faith*, attended religious observances on a regular basis.

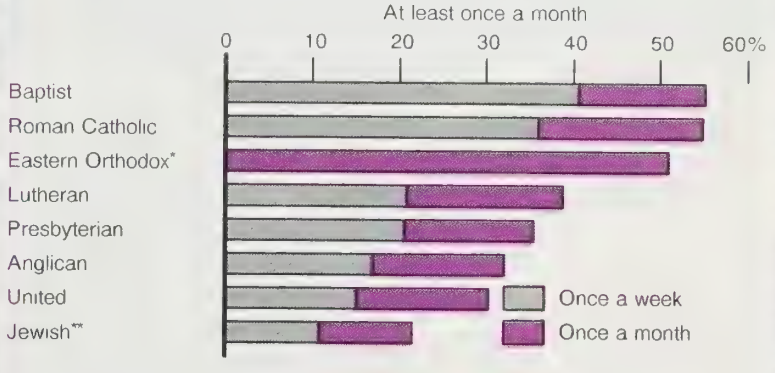
There has also been a decline in the frequency of attendance at religious services for some groups in the last decade. Between 1975 and 1985,[6] the percentage reporting weekly attendance at religious services or meetings declined from 25% to 15% for members of the United Church, from 45% to 36% for Roman Catholics, and from 24% to 17% for Anglicans. On the other hand, there was little or no change in the frequency of attendance for Presbyterians, Lutherans, Baptists, and among persons of Jewish faith*.

Weekly Attendance at Religious Services, by Selected Denominations, 1975 and 1985



* Figure should be used with caution because the sampling variability is high.
Sources: Statistics Canada, The General Social Survey, 1985, unpublished data; Bibby, R.W., "The State of Collective Religiosity in Canada: An Empirical Analysis", *Canadian Review of Sociology and Anthropology*, 16(1), 1979.

Frequency of Attendance at Religious Services, by Selected Denominations, 1985



* The weekly figure for Eastern Orthodox cannot be expressed because the sampling variability is too high.
** Figure should be used with caution because the sampling variability is high.
Source: Statistics Canada, The General Social Survey, 1985, unpublished data.

* Figure should be used with caution because the sampling variability is high.

[6] The 1975 figures are from Bibby, R.W., "The State of Collective Religiosity in Canada," *Canadian Review of Sociology and Arthropology* 16(1) 1979; the 1985 data are from the General Social Survey.



Religious Affiliation of the Population, by Province, 1981

	Catholic	Protestant	Other religious groupings	No religious preference	Total
			%		
Newfoundland	36.3	62.6	0.1	1.0	100.0
Prince Edward Island	46.6	50.5	0.3	2.7	100.0
Nova Scotia	37.0	58.0	0.9	4.1	100.0
New Brunswick	53.9	42.9	0.4	2.9	100.0
Quebec	88.2	6.4	3.4	2.1	100.0
Ontario	35.6	51.8	5.4	7.2	100.0
Manitoba	31.5	56.6	4.4	7.5	100.0
Saskatchewan	32.4	58.3	3.1	6.3	100.0
Alberta	27.7	56.0	4.5	11.7	100.0
British Columbia	19.8	54.7	4.5	20.9	100.0
Canada	**47.3**	**41.2**	**4.1**	**7.4**	**100.0**

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 92-912, *1981 Census of Canada, Population: Religion.*

Socio-Demographic Profile of Selected Religious Groups, 1981

	Total population	Median age	Median years of schooling	Average income[1]	Unemployment rate[2]
	000s			$	%
Catholic	11,403	28.2	11.4	12,300	9.0
Protestant	9,915	31.6	12.0	13,200	5.8
Eastern Orthodox	362	33.8	10.8	12,400	5.7
Eastern Non-Christian	306	27.0	12.7	12,900	7.2
Jewish	296	35.1	13.3	19,500	5.3
Other groups	13	30.5	12.9	12,200	9.4
No religious preference	1,784	26.3	12.6	14,900	6.5
Total population[3]	**24,084**	**29.4**	**11.8**	**13,000**	**7.4**

[1] Weighted 1980 average total income of population aged 15 and over with income.
[2] Percentage of persons aged 15 and over in the labour force who were unemployed in the week prior to June 3, 1981.
[3] Includes 5,500 persons not classified elsewhere.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada, unpublished data.

foundland.

British Columbia and Alberta had the largest percentage of their populations reporting no religious preference. In 1981, 21% of residents of British Columbia and 12% of those in Alberta reported no religious affiliation. In fact, these two provinces, with just over one-fifth of the total Canadian population, accounted for almost half (46%) of all those who reported no religious preference in 1981. In Ontario, Manitoba and Saskatchewan, the percentage of the population with no religious preference was similar to the national rate, while just 3% of the population in the Atlantic Provinces, and 2% of those in Quebec reported no religious preference.

The highest percentages of persons affiliated with other religious groupings were reported in Ontario (5.4%), Alberta (4.5%), British Columbia (4.5%) and Manitoba (4.4%). In contrast, less than 1% of the population in the Atlantic Provinces belonged to one of these groups.

Socio-demographic Profile of Religious Groups

Religious affiliation still reflects important underlying social differences among Canadians. For example, in 1981, Protestants were on average older, and had more median years of schooling, higher average incomes, and lower unemployment rates than did Catholics. In fact, the average income of Catholics was among the lowest of all religious groups, and their unemployment rate was among the highest.

Persons of Jewish faith had the highest median age, the most schooling, the highest average income, and the lowest unemployment rate of any religious group. The income figures for the Jewish group are most striking. In 1981, the average income of those affiliated with the Jewish faith was 50% higher than the national average. Their average income was also 31% higher than that of the population with no religious preference, the grouping with the second highest average income.

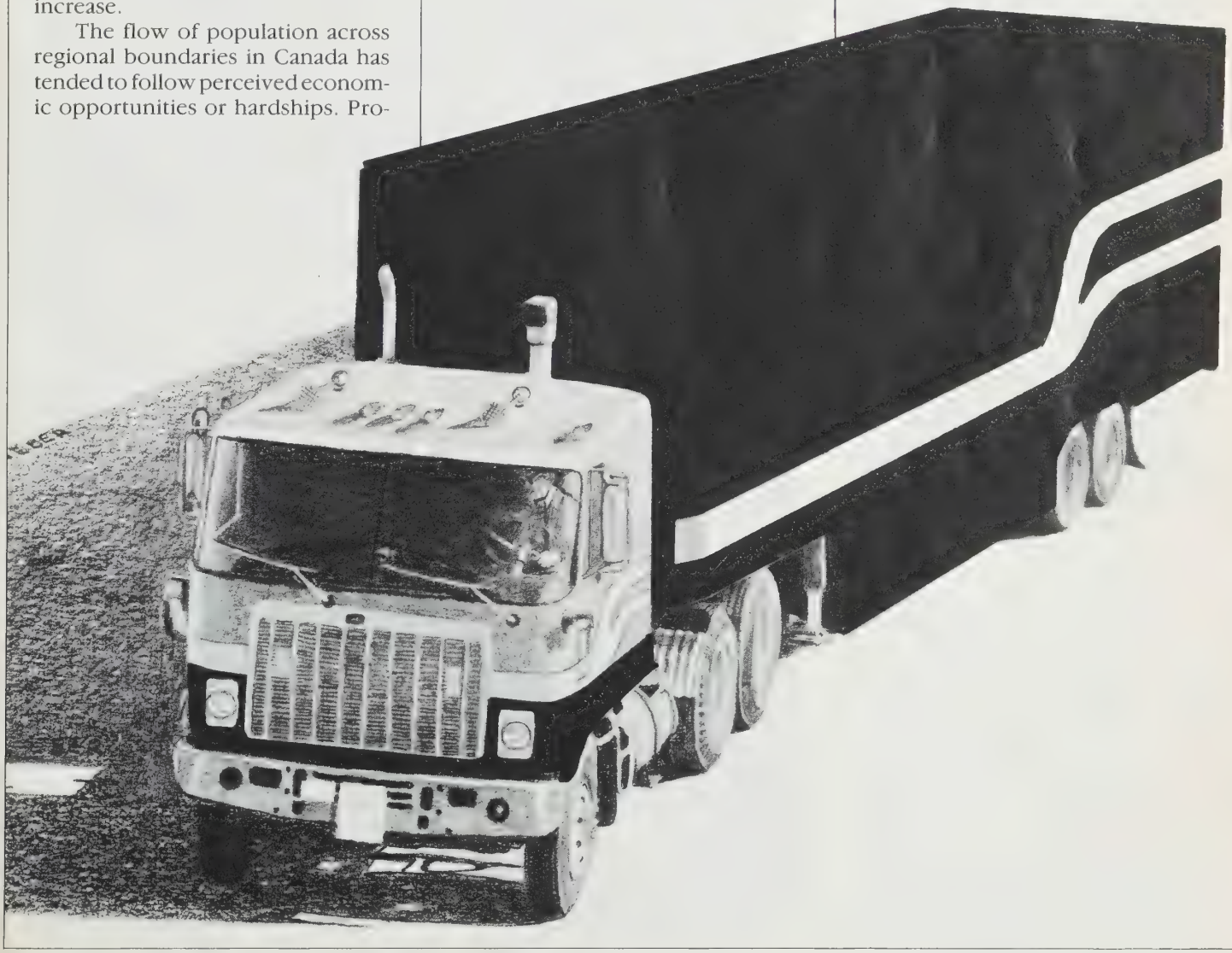
George A. Mori *is an analyst with the Housing, Family, and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

INTERREGIONAL MIGRATION OF THE CANADIAN POPULATION

by Mary Anne Burke

Migration between the regions of Canada has been one of the key variables affecting the overall distribution of the Canadian population. In fact, interregional population flows have been far more important in shaping population concentrations in Canada than factors such as immigration and natural increase.

The flow of population across regional boundaries in Canada has tended to follow perceived economic opportunities or hardships. Provinces which historically have had strong economies have consistently attracted a large proportion of total Canadian migrants. Economically disadvantaged provinces, on the other hand, have had difficulty attracting migrants, and in most cases have consistently had a net outflow of population. Regional economic booms or busts have resulted in relatively sudden shifts in the flow of the Canadian population, which in turn often have resulted in pressures on the social fabric of the regions concerned.



Changes in technology, shifts in labour force requirements, the discovery of new natural resources, and changes in the structure of consumer demand have all had differing impacts on regional economies. When viewed from a national perspective, the movement of people has facilitated changing uses of Canada's resources. At the same time, imbalances in the movement of people may also have contributed to patterns of economic disparity between the regions of Canada.

Since the 1930s, net interprovincial migration in Canada generally has been from the Atlantic Provinces, Quebec, and Manitoba and Saskatchewan to Ontario, British Columbia, and more recently to Alberta. As a result, these three provinces have claimed an increasing share of the Canadian population at the expense of the other regions.

In-migration, refers to the number of persons who move into a migration area or areas from elsewhere in the country; **in-migrants** are those involved in the process of **in-migration. Out-migration** refers to the number of persons who leave a migration area or areas for other areas within the country; **out-migrants** are those involved in out-migration. A **migration stream** refers to a body of migrants which departs from one area of origin and arrives at a common area of destination. People who come to Canada from other countries are referred to as **immigrants,** while **emigrants** refer to those who leave Canada to go to another country.

Atlantic Canada

The lack of a strong, diversified economy in the Atlantic region has contributed to the net outflow of its population since 1931. The period 1971-1976 was an exception. During this period, there was a net inflow of 6,000 migrants to the Atlantic region. This was attributed mainly to a net inflow of 27,000 migrants from Ontario.

In the last decade, however, Atlantic Canada again lost population through internal migration. There was a particularly large net outflow





of migrants from this region between 1976 and 1981. In this period, 37,000 more people left the Atlantic Provinces for other parts of Canada than moved to this region. Most of this loss was attributed to migration to Alberta.

The net outflow of population from the Atlantic Provinces moderated between 1981 and 1986. Still, in this period, this region had a net loss of 8,000 internal migrants. Included in this figure were a net outflow of 13,000 migrants to Ontario and a net inflow of 1,900 people from Alberta.

Quebec

Since 1966, and especially since 1976, Quebec has had large net outflows of its population. During the period 1976-1981, Quebec had a net loss of 156,000 internal migrants. Between 1981 and 1986, almost 80,000 more people left than came to Quebec. Most of these losses were accounted for by movement between Quebec and Ontario.

To a large extent, the net outflow from Quebec has been the result of a decrease in the flow of persons moving to Quebec. In-migration to Quebec dropped from 219,000 during the period 1961-66, to around 120,000 during the years 1976-81 and remained at that level during the period 1981-1986.

Although Quebec has lost population through net internal migration to all regions in the last decade, the largest losses have been to Ontario. In the period 1976-81, more than 100,000 more persons moved from Quebec to Ontario than went in the opposite direction. Quebec also had significant net losses to Alberta (27,000) and British Columbia (16,000) during these years. During the period 1981-86, Quebec had a net loss of 68,000 migrants to Ontario.

Ontario has been the most favoured destination of people leaving Quebec. Over two-thirds (68%) of the 200,000 people leaving Quebec between 1981 and 1986, for example, went to Ontario. Historically, the next largest streams from Quebec have gone to Atlantic Canada and British Columbia. However, between 1976 and 1981, more Quebec migrants went to Alberta than to either of these two areas. Even though the oil and gas boom slowed dramatically in the 1980s, the number of migrants leaving Quebec for Alberta during the period 1981-1986 still equalled the number going to Atlantic Canada and exceeded the number moving to British Columbia.

Migrants to Quebec have come mainly from Ontario. That province supplied 56% of all migrants to Quebec between 1981 and 1986. The second largest stream of migrants to Quebec has been from Atlantic Canada, although since 1981, the stream from Alberta has been slightly larger than that from the Atlantic region.

Ontario

With its diversified economy and strong industrial sector, Ontario has attracted a large proportion of the total number of Canadian migrants. In fact, the only time Ontario has ever experienced a net outflow of population was during the 1970s when 66,000 more people left than came to Ontario. In the 1980s, however, the flow of migrants reverted to pre-1971 trends. Between 1981 and 1986, Ontario had a net gain of 122,000 internal migrants.

The largest proportion of migrants to Ontario generally has come from Quebec. However, in the period 1981-86, the proportion from Alberta (24%) nearly equalled that from Quebec (30%).

Historically, the largest migration stream from Ontario has been to Quebec. In the 1971-76 period, however, more Ontario migrants went to the Atlantic provinces than to any other region. Since 1976, Alberta has attracted the largest migration stream from Ontario.

Manitoba and Saskatchewan

Manitoba and Saskatchewan have had a net loss of migrants since the 1930s. The outflow of people has resulted in a depopulation of the countryside and the disappearance

of many small rural communities. Many factors have contributed to the outflow: the depression and drought of the 1930s; the revolution in farm technology; the expansion of large corporate farms; and an economy heavily dependent on the farm industry and subject to the vagaries of weather and distant markets.

From 1931 to 1961, there were large net outflows of people from these two provinces, especially from Saskatchewan. In fact, during this period, the outflow from Saskatchewan accounted for the largest proportion of the total outflow from all parts of Canada, and led to an absolute decline in the population of Saskatchewan.

Net outflows from Manitoba and Saskatchewan moderated in the 1961-1976 period. However, there was a further major net loss of almost 52,000 internal migrants from these two provinces between 1976 and 1981. In the 1981-1986 period, the net outflow from these two provinces was just 6,000, an historic low.

Until 1951, nearly all migrants from Manitoba and Saskatchewan went to either British Columbia or Ontario. Since 1951, however, Alberta has been the prime destination of persons leaving Manitoba and Saskatchewan. In the late 1970s, for example, 45% of all those leaving these two provinces went to Alberta. Those moving to Manitoba and Saskatchewan have tended to come mainly from these same three provinces.

Alberta

Fluctuations in population movement to and from Alberta have tended to reflect the volatile nature of this province's economy. The drought in the 1930s played havoc with its farm economy, and resulted in a net population outflow during that time. Economic diversification, primarily as a result of the expansion of the oil and gas industry, contributed to the net inflow of population during the 1941 to 1976 period.

The subsequent boom and bust of the oil and gas industry resulted in a massive influx of people from all over Canada during the 1976-1981 period, and a population outflow in the 1980s. Alberta had a net gain of 186,000 internal migrants between 1976 and 1981. In the 1981-1986

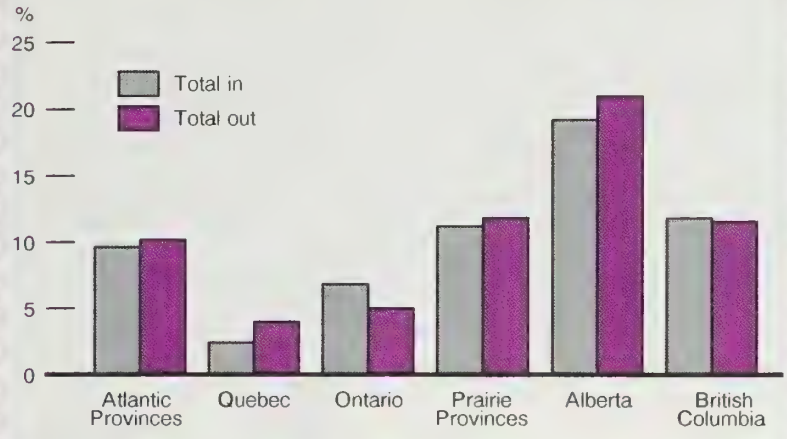


Percentage Distribution of Canada's Population, 1871-1986

	1871	1881	1891	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971	1981	1986
							%						
Newfoundland	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.3
Prince Edward Island	2.6	2.5	2.3	1.9	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5
Nova Scotia	10.7	10.2	9.3	8.6	6.8	6.0	4.9	5.0	4.6	4.0	3.7	3.5	3.5
New Brunswick	7.7	7.4	6.6	6.2	4.9	4.4	3.9	4.0	3.7	3.3	2.9	2.9	2.8
Quebec	32.3	31.4	30.8	30.7	27.9	26.9	27.7	29.0	29.0	28.8	28.0	26.5	25.9
Ontario	43.9	44.6	43.7	40.6	35.1	33.4	33.1	32.9	32.8	34.2	35.7	35.4	35.9
Manitoba	0.7	1.4	3.1	4.7	6.4	6.9	6.8	6.3	5.5	5.1	4.6	4.2	4.2
Saskatchewan	–	–	–	1.7	6.8	8.6	8.9	7.8	5.9	5.1	4.3	4.0	4.0
Alberta	–	–	–	1.4	5.2	6.7	7.1	6.9	6.7	7.3	7.6	9.2	9.3
British Columbia	1.0	1.1	2.1	3.3	5.5	6.0	6.7	7.1	8.3	8.9	10.1	11.3	11.4
Northwest and Yukon Territories	1.4	1.4	2.1	0.9	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Total Population (in millions)	3.7	4.3	4.8	5.4	7.2	8.8	10.4	11.5	14.0	18.2	21.6	24.3	25.4

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Total In- and Out-migration as a Percentage of 1981 Population, by Region, 1981-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, unpublished estimates.

Total Interregional Migration by Origin and Destination of Migrants, 1981-1986

Origin	Destination						
	Atlantic Provinces	Quebec	Ontario	Manitoba and Saskatchewan	Alberta	British Columbia	Total[1]
Atlantic Provinces	-	18,060	82,807	10,396	34,381	16,612	165,164
Quebec	21,693	-	137,267	6,879	21,567	14,043	202,808
Ontario	69,579	69,495	-	42,842	84,780	62,070	333,730
Manitoba and Saskatchewan	10,173	5,541	47,964	-	68,127	37,125	171,941
Alberta	36,309	18,183	110,986	68,054	-	108,260	348,361
British Columbia	16,599	10,845	71,871	33,925	102,044	-	242,453
Total[1]	157,009	123,488	455,791	165,550	319,042	246,679	1,493,539
Net migration	-8,155	-79,320	122,061	-6,391	-29,319	4,226	-

[1] Includes the Northwest and Yukon Territories.

Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division, unpublished estimates.

period, however, Alberta experienced a net loss of 29,000 internal migrants. Preliminary data for 1986-1987 indicate a continuation of this trend, with Alberta experiencing a net loss of 28,000 migrants in that year alone.

The sudden population inflow to Alberta in the late 1970s placed severe strains on social services and institutions in the province. The housing industry, for example, had difficulty meeting demand, while schools were filled beyond capacity and teachers were in short supply. As well, social service agencies and welfare offices were overburdened with the demand for their services.

Migrants to Alberta have come mainly from British Columbia, Saskatchewan and Manitoba. However, during the period 1976-81, more came from Ontario than from these three provinces. Although the number of persons moving from Ontario to Alberta remained high in the 1980s, British Columbia again became the primary source of Alberta in-migrants in this period.

Those leaving Alberta have gone mainly to these same provinces. Since 1981, however, there have been larger flows than normal from Alberta to all regions, particularly to Ontario.

British Columbia

British Columbia historically has received net inflows of population from the rest of the country. Its favourable climate, spectacular topography and relatively buoyant economy have all contributed to its attractiveness. Unprecedented low levels of net migration since 1980, however, are a reflection of the recent severe economic recession in British Columbia. Net migration to British Columbia fell from 122,000 during 1976-1981, to just 4,100 in the 1981-1986 period. During three individual years of the latter period, British Columbia experienced net outflows for the first time.

Alberta has been both the main source of in-migrants to British Columbia and the main destination of those leaving British Columbia. In the period 1981-1986, 44% of internal migrants arriving in British Columbia came from Alberta, while 42% of those leaving British Columbia went to Alberta. In fact, the flow of population between British Columbia and Alberta since the mid-1970s has rivalled the stream between Quebec and Ontario as the single largest interregional migration stream in Canada.

Provincial Distribution

The flow of Canadians across regional borders over the years has contributed to shifts in the provincial distribution of the population in a generally westward direction. In the post-war period, the proportion of the Canadian population in Ontario, British Columbia and Alberta has grown, while the remaining regions have seen their shares of the national population decline.

The percentage of the Canadian population in Ontario increased from just under 33% in 1951 to almost 36% in 1986. In the 1981-1986 period, Ontario was the only region in Canada to increase its share of the population. During this time, the proportion of the population living in Ontario increased 0.6 percentage points.

British Columbia and Alberta

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Net Interregional Migration as a Percentage of Total Migration[1], by Region, 1931-1987



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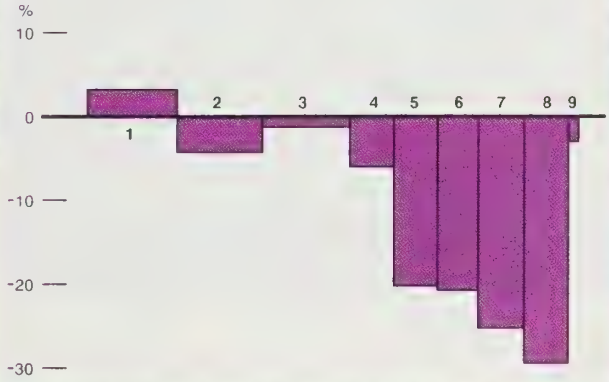
1 1931-1941 **3** 1951-1961 **5** 1966-1971 **7** 1976-1981 **9** 1986-1987
2 1941-1951 **4** 1961-1966 **6** 1971-1976 **8** 1981-1986

[1] Figures calculated by dividing net migration (in-migration minus out-migration) by the total volume of net interprovincial migration in Canada.
Sources : Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-208, *Internatinal and Interprovincial Migration in Canada, 1977 et 1978,* and Demography Division, unpublished estimates.

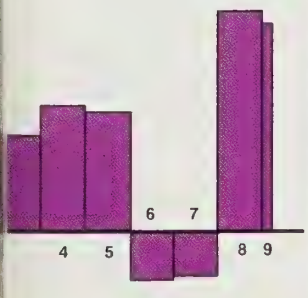
Saskatchewan



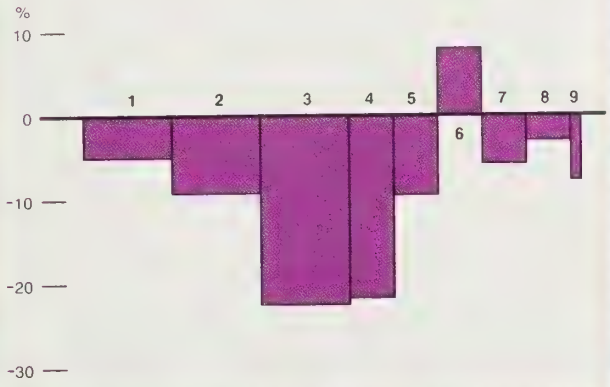
Net Interregional Migration for Quebec
as a Percentage of Total Migration[1], 1931-1987



Ontario
ation[1], 1931-1987



Net Interregional Migration for Atlantic Provinces
as a Percentage of Total Migration[1], 1931-1987



Migration of 1982 University and Community College Graduates

The interregional migration of 1982 postsecondary graduates generally followed the migration pattern of the total population. As of 1984, Alberta, Ontario and British Columbia were net gainers when all movement of the class of 1982 is considered. Alberta had a net gain of over 1,400 graduates, while Ontario gained 1,000 and British Columbia close to 400.

About 1,100 more Ontario university graduates left than came to Ontario from other provinces. This loss, however, was more than offset by the large number of 1982 graduates who had come from other provinces to Ontario in the year prior to enrolling.

The reverse situation occurred in both Alberta and British Columbia. In the year prior to enrolling, more students left than came to these provinces. However, in 1984, far fewer 1982 graduates had left than had come to Alberta and British Columbia.

With the exception of Newfoundland, where there was no net change, all other provinces suffered a net loss of graduates from the class of 1982. Quebec lost the greatest number, almost 1,500. Almost all of this loss was accounted for by a net loss of those who left the province in the year prior to enrollment. The largest percentage losses, however, were recorded in the Atlantic Provinces other than Newfoundland, and in the Prairie Provinces.

Generally, community college graduates were much less likely than university graduates to migrate from one province to another, either prior to enrolling or after graduation. Just 3.2% of community college graduates compared to 7.5% of university graduates had moved prior to enrolling, while only 5.4% of community college graduates, compared to 12.1% of university graduates had changed provinces after graduation.

As a result, by 1984, there was much less net redistribution of 1982 community college graduates than of university graduates. Alberta had a net gain of 530 community college graduates, while Quebec had a net loss of 230 and Ontario 130. The losses in these two provinces, however, represented only 1.6% and 0.5%, respectively, of the total number of graduates residing in each province prior to enrolment. Net changes in the other provinces were all less than 100 graduates.

This material comes from the report "The Class of 82", Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, and the Secretary of State.

Migration of 1982 Graduates in the Period between the 12 Months before Enrolling and June/July 1984, by Province

	Graduates residing in province before enrolling	Migration before enrollment		Migration after graduation		Total graduates in province in June/July 1984	Net change	Net change as a % of graduates residing in province before enrollment
		Residents leaving to study in another province	Residents of other provinces entering to study	Graduates leaving province after graduating	Graduates entering from other provinces after graduating			
University								
Newfoundland	1,637	199	55	174	316	1,635	--	--
Prince Edward Island	411	202	39	80	198	366	-45	-10.9
Nova Scotia	3,965	331	884	1,504	624	3,638	-327	-8.2
New Brunswick	2,319	517	461	815	636	2,084	-235	-10.1
Quebec	26,903	1,989	505	1,943	1,960	25,435	-1,468	-5.5
Ontario	38,302	983	3,090	3,948	2,851	39,311	+1,009	+2.6
Manitoba	4,139	435	355	794	442	3,706	-433	-10.5
Saskatchewan	3,465	365	385	782	496	3,198	-267	-7.7
Alberta	7,107	1,040	764	783	2,487	8,535	+1,428	+20.1
British Columbia	6,615	804	576	677	1,291	7,001	+386	+5.8
Total (including Territories)	95,109	7,112	7,112	11,498	11,498	95,109	-	
Community College								
Newfoundland	763	76	28	70	90	735	-28	-3.7
Prince Edward Island	401	41	144	234	39	310	-91	-22.7
Nova Scotia	776	128	38	140	177	724	-52	-6.7
New Brunswick	620	154	58	98	206	632	+12	+1.9
Quebec	14,466	265	--	329	325	14,232	-234	-1.6
Ontario	23,826	123	616	1,004	385	23,700	-126	-0.5
Manitoba	1,365	120	58	106	177	1,374	--	--
Saskatchewan	1,217	250	61	160	285	1,153	-64	-5.3
Alberta	5,350	215	560	530	714	5,880	+530	+9.9
British Columbia	3,793	244	81	194	384	3,820	--	--
Total (including Territories)	52,639	1,676	1,676	2,861	2,861	52,639	-	

-- Figure cannot be expressed because sampling variability is too high

Note: All 1982 graduates living outside Canada in June 1984 are excluded. In addition, 7,626 graduates are excluded from this table as they did not report their residence before enrolling or indicated their principal residence before enrolling was outside Canada, or did not have their province of interview recorded

Source: Statistics Canada, National Graduates Survey, June/July 1984

Net Region to Region Migration Flows, 1961-1986

	Annual net flows[1]				
	1961-66	1966-71	1971-76	1976-81	1981-86
Between Atlantic and					
Quebec	-1,105	672	2,236	8,052	3,633
Ontario	-11,239	-9,514	5,393	-1,298	-13,288
Prairies[2]	-362	-220	139	-3,940	-223
Alberta	-526	-966	-727	-30,088	1,928
British Columbia	-1,001	-1,548	-911	-9,225	-13
Total[3]	-14,197	-11,620	6,001	-37,345	-8,155
Between Quebec and					
Atlantic	1,105	-672	-2,236	-8,052	-3,633
Ontario	-4,497	-19,309	-9,388	-101,519	-67,772
Prairies[2]	176	-74	-314	-3,700	-1,338
Alberta	-53	-1,351	-1,511	-27,208	-3,384
British Columbia	-704	-2,953	-2,063	-15,732	-3,198
Total[3]	-3,972	-24,547	-15,522	-156,498	-79,320
Between Ontario and					
Atlantic	11,239	9,514	-5,393	1,298	13,228
Quebec	4,497	19,309	9,388	101,519	67,772
Prairies[2]	1,980	4,163	114	-9,847	5,122
Alberta	869	-289	-4,895	-99,581	26,206
British Columbia	-1,864	-2,671	-6,729	-49,493	9,801
Total[3]	17,074	30,142	-7,712	-57,826	122,061
Between Prairies[2] and					
Atlantic	362	220	-139	3,946	223
Quebec	-176	74	314	3,700	1,338
Ontario	-1,980	-4,163	-114	9,847	5,122
Alberta	-5,441	-10,227	-8,229	-42,902	+73
British Columbia	-5,976	-9,965	-4,989	-26,423	-3,200
Total[3]	-13,113	-24,418	-13,516	-51,930	-6,391
Between Alberta and					
Atlantic	526	966	727	30,088	-1,928
Quebec	53	1,351	1,511	27,208	3,384
Ontario	-869	289	4,895	99,581	-26,206
Prairies[2]	5,441	10,227	8,229	42,902	-73
British Columbia	-5,668	-6,243	-3,635	-18,193	-6,216
Total[3]	-397	6,401	11,714	186,314	-29,319
Between British Columbia and					
Atlantic	1,001	1,548	911	9,225	13
Quebec	704	2,953	2,063	15,732	3,198
Ontario	1,864	2,671	6,729	49,493	-9,801
Prairies[2]	5,976	9,965	4,989	26,423	3,200
Alberta	5,668	6,243	3,635	18,193	6,216
Total[3]	15,549	22,993	18,457	121,595	4,226

[1] This table outlines differences in interregional migration. A positive figure indicates that more people came to the indicated region from the sub-region than went from that region to the sub-region. A negative figure, of course indicates the opposite. For example, in 1961-66 an average of 1,105 more people moved from the Atlantic region to Quebec than moved eastward from Quebec each year. In 1966-71, however, the flow reversed and 672 more persons moved from Quebec to the Atlantic region than in the opposite direction.

[2] Includes Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

[3] Total migration figures include persons moving to and from the Northwest and Yukon Territories.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-208, *International and Interprovincial Migration in Canada, 1977 and 1978*, and Demography Division, unpublished estimates.

also experienced large post-war increases in their shares of the Canadian population. Between 1951 and 1986, the percentage of the population living in British Columbia increased from 8% to 11%, while in Alberta the increase was from 7% to 9%. Neither province, however, experienced any growth in their share of the total population during the 1980s.

The Atlantic Provinces have seen their share of the Canadian population decrease the most of any region. The proportion of the population in the Atlantic Provinces halved in the post-war period, from 18% of all Canadians in 1951 to 9% in 1986.

Quebec, Manitoba and Saskatchewan also experienced declines in their shares of the population. Quebec accounted for 26% of all Canadians in 1986, compared to 29% in 1951. Quebec was the only region in which the share of population declined in the 1981-1986 period. During this time, Quebec's share of the population fell 0.6 percentage points. In 1986, Manitoba and Saskatchewan combined, made up 8% of the total Canadian population, down from 11% in 1951.

The Northwest and Yukon Territories together accounted for just 0.3% of the Canadian population in 1986, up slightly from 0.2% in 1951.

Mary Anne Burke *is Associate Editor of Canadian Social Trends.*

- For more historical statistics on migration see George, M.V., *Internal Migration in Canada,* 1961 Census Monograph, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-557, and Stone, L., *Migration in Canada Regional Aspects,* 1961 Census Monograph, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-548.

INVOLUNTARY PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT IN CANADA, 1975-1986

by Ernest B. Akyeampong

The growth of part-time employment [+] has featured prominently in discussions on employment in Canada in recent years. One important facet of this growth has been the rise in the number of persons who work part-time because they are unable to find full-time jobs. These persons are referred to as involuntary part-time workers.

Involuntary part-time employment is a form of underemployment or underutilization of labour. It may contribute to deepening inequalities in the distribution of income and wealth, since part-time workers are generally paid less than full-time workers. Also, fringe benefits such as pensions and insurance coverage are often not extended to part-timers, and their promotion prospects are usually less promising than those for full-time workers. A large majority of involuntary part-timers are women, adding another dimension to the debate on the social implications of involuntary part-time work.

The Increase in Involuntary Part-time Employment

In 1986, an estimated 514,000 Canadians were working part-time only because they were unable to find full-time jobs. This was up 374% from 1975 when 109,000 people involuntarily worked part-time. In the same period, voluntary part-time employment rose 47%, from 880,000 to 1.3 million, and full-time employment increased 18%, from 8.3 million to 9.8 million. As a result, in 1986, approximately four out of every 100 workers in Canada were involuntarily working part-time compared to only about one out of every 100 in 1975.



Involuntary and Voluntary Part-time Employment:

The category of involuntary part-time workers consists of those individuals who usually work part-time, that is, less than thirty hours per week, because they are unable to find full-time work. All other part-time workers are considered voluntary part-time workers.

The number of involuntary part-time workers as a percentage of all part-time employees has also increased substantially. In 1975, 11% of part-time workers reported that they wanted, but could not find, a full-time job; by 1984, this proportion had risen to 30%, although it subsequently declined to 28% in 1986.

The growth of involuntary part-time employment since the mid-1970s has not been even. Between 1975 and 1981, the number of involuntary part-time workers increased by about 25% per year; this was four times the rate of growth for voluntary part-time employment, and ten times that for full-time employment.

The rapid growth of involuntary part-time employment continued during and immediately following the 1981-82 recession. The number of involuntary part-time workers increased 42% in 1982, and by a further 24% in 1983. In contrast, volun-

+ For more details on part-time employment, see the Autumn, 1986 edition of **Canadian Social Trends**.

tary part-time employment was 3% lower in 1983 than in 1981, while full-time employment declined 5% in this period.

The growth of involuntary part-time employment slowed in the 1984-85 period. The number of involuntary part-time workers increased by only 8% in 1984 and just 2% in 1985. The growth of involuntary part-time employment, however, was still slightly greater than that for both voluntary part-time and full-time employment in this period.

In 1986, the number of involuntary part-time workers declined slightly, falling by 0.4%. In comparison, voluntary part-time employment increased 5%, and full-time employment grew 3%.

Why the Uneven Growth in Involuntary Part-time Employment in the 1980s?

The growth of involuntary part-time employment in Canada has been one outcome of an increasing number of mismatches between the part-time work schedules offered by some employers and the preferences for full-time work of an expanding labour force. The number of involuntary part-time workers increased during and immediately after the recession of 1981-82, when many employers replaced some of their full-time work force with part-time workers. At the same time, many people settled for part-time work because their only alternative was to become or remain unemployed. The result was a decline in the number of full-time jobs along with a large increase in involuntary part-time employment. After 1983, in the wake of an expanding economy and amid projections of continued growth, employers began to enlarge their full-time work force. In this economic climate, many people desiring full-time jobs found one with relative ease, resulting in a slowdown in the growth of involuntary part-time employment.

Who Are the Involuntary Part-time Workers?

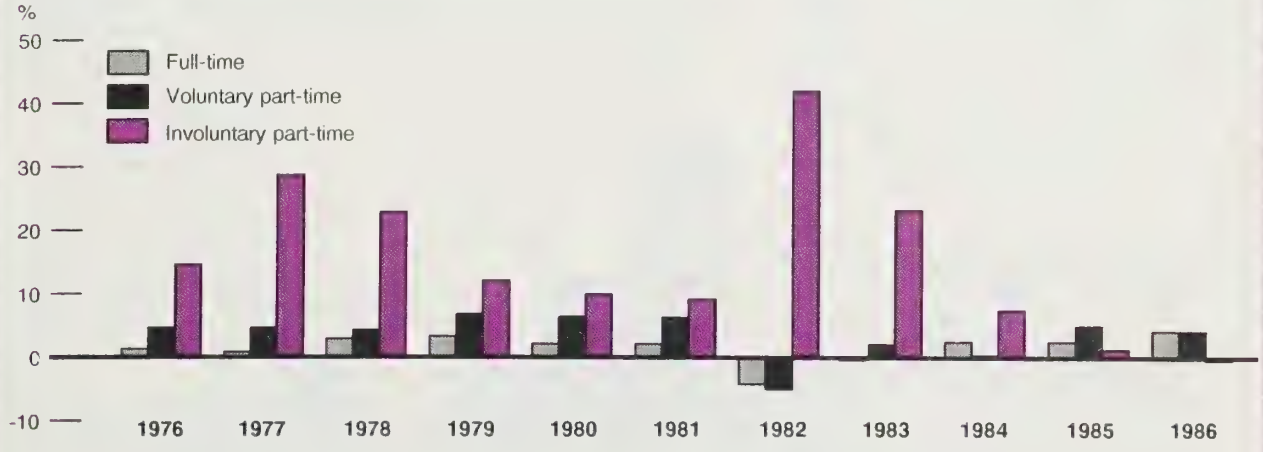
Women and young men make up the vast majority of involuntary part-time workers. In 1986, women aged 25-54 accounted for 41% of all involuntary part-timers, compared with 29% of all employment. At the same time, women aged 15-24 made up 24% of all involuntary part-time workers, compared with 10% of total employment. Similarly, young men comprised 16% of involuntary part-time workers, but only 11% of total employment. On the other

Full-time, and Voluntary and Involuntary Part-time Employment, 1975-1986

	Total employment	Full-time employment	Part-time employment		Involuntary part-time employment as a % of	
			Voluntary	Involuntary	Total employment	Part-time employment
	000s				%	
1975	9,284	8,296	880	109	1.2	11.0
1980	10,708	9,316	1,147	245	2.3	17.6
1981	11,006	9,519	1,219	268	2.4	18.0
1982	10,644	9,110	1,153	381	3.6	24.8
1983	10,734	9,083	1,180	471	4.4	28.5
1984	11,000	9,311	1,181	508	4.6	30.1
1985	11,311	9,555	1,240	516	4.6	29.4
1986	11,634	9,824	1,296	514	4.4	28.4

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages, 1975-1983,* and 71-001, *The Labour Force.*

Annual Percentage Change in Full-time, and Voluntary and Involuntary Part-time Employment, 1976-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages,* and 71-001, *The Labour Force.*

hand, men aged 25-54 made up 13% of involuntary part-time workers, as opposed to 39% of all employed workers. Men and women aged 55 and over comprised the remaining 7% of involuntary part-timers; they also made up 11% of total employment.

The incidence of involuntary part-time employment is highest among women aged 15-24. In 1986, about 10% of employed women in this age group involuntarily worked part-time. Men aged 15-24 and women aged 25-54 also had relatively high rates of involuntary part-time employment. Around 7% of employed men aged 15-24 and 6% of working women aged 25-54 worked part-time because they could not find full-time jobs. In comparison, only 1% of employed men aged 25-54 and 3% of men and women aged 55 and over involuntarily worked part-time.

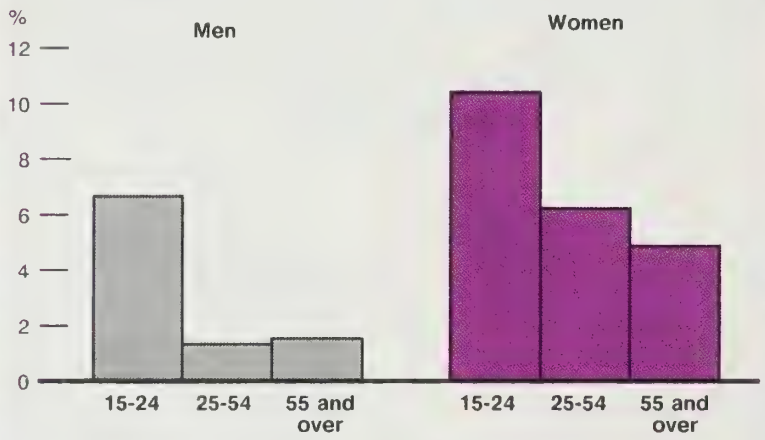
The number of involuntary part-time workers as a percentage of all part-time workers, however, is highest among men aged 25-54. In 1986, 65% of all men in this age group working part-time would have preferred full-time jobs. The comparable proportions were 29% for women aged 25-54; 28% for women in the 15-24 age group; 24% for men aged 15-24; and 17% for men and women aged 55 and over.

Compared with other employed persons, involuntary part-time workers tend to have slightly lower levels of educational attainment. In 1986, 79% of involuntary part-timers had less than a university degree or postsecondary diploma or certificate. The comparable proportion for all employed persons was 71%.

Regional Levels of Involuntary Part-time Work

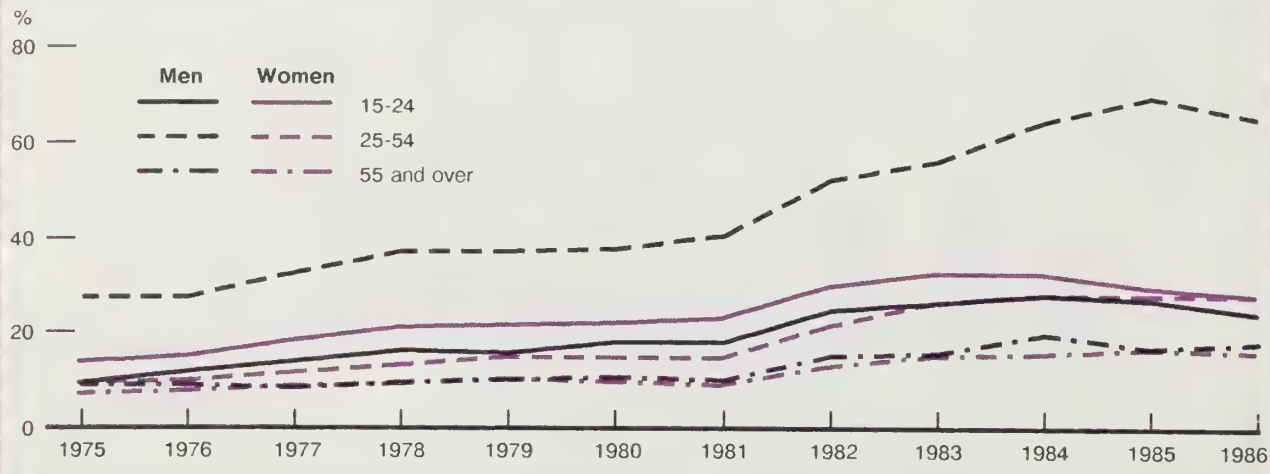
Regions characterized by high unemployment account for a disproportionate share of involuntary part-time employment. In 1986, about 56% of Canada's involuntary part-time workers, compared with 43% of all employed persons, resided in Atlantic Canada, Quebec or British Columbia, the regions with the highest unemployment rates. Conversely, Ontario and the Prairie Provinces, regions of lower unemployment, together accounted for only 44% of involuntary part-time workers, compared with 57% of total employment.

Involuntary Part-time Employment as a Percentage of Total Employment, by Age and Sex, 1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*.

Involuntary Part-time Employment as a Percentage of Total Part-time Employment, by Age and Sex, 1975-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*.

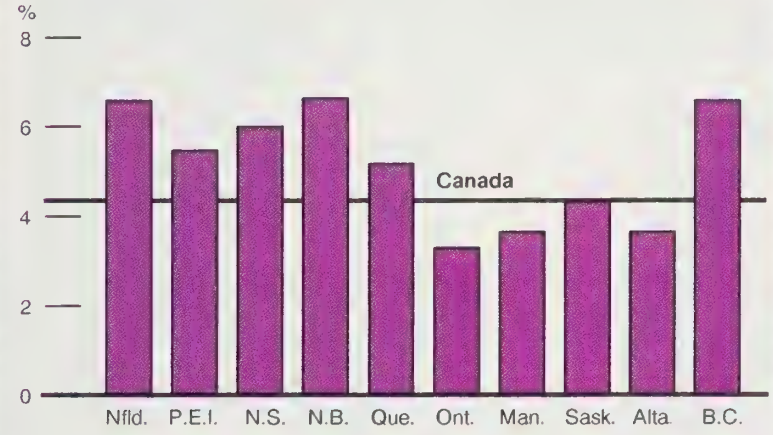
Furthermore, about six out of every ten part-timers in Newfoundland, the province with the highest overall unemployment rate, wanted full-time jobs. This was three times the rate for Ontario, the province with the lowest overall unemployment rate, and twice the rate for all of Canada.

Industrial Differences in Involuntary Part-time Work

Part-time employment, whether voluntary or involuntary, is more prevalent in the service sector of the economy than in the goods-producing industries. In 1986, about 90% of involuntary and 88% of voluntary part-time workers were employed in the service sector. At the same time, this sector accounted for 71% of total employment. Furthermore, in line with the overall shift of employment to the service sector, approximately 90% of the increase in involuntary part-time employment during the 1975-1986 period occurred in this sector.

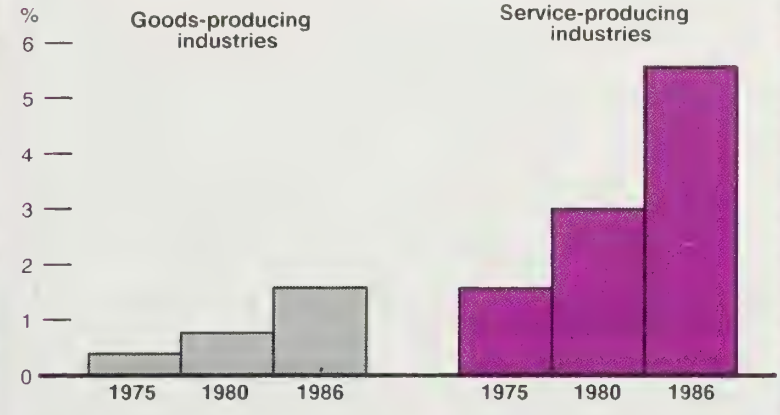
The highest levels of involuntary part-time employment among all the major industries are in the community, business and personal services, and in the trade industries. In 1986, approximately seven out of every 100 workers in both these industrial groupings were working part-time because they could not find full-time jobs. Involuntary part-time employment is least prevalent in manufacturing. Only one in 100 workers in this industry was involuntarily working part-time in 1986.

Involuntary Part-time Employment as a Percentage of Total Employment, by Province, 1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*.

Involuntary Part-time Employment as a Percentage of Total Employment in the Goods- and Service-producing Industries, 1975, 1980 and 1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force*.

Future Trends

Despite the recent slowdown in growth, all industries now rely more on part-time work than they did in the past, though the incidence is about three times more common among the service industries than in the goods-producing ones. The growth of the service sector is also expected to outpace that of the goods-producing sector for many more years. This being so, part-time work might continue to rise. However, pay equity legislation, as well as other legislation seeking to prorate work-related benefits for part-time employees, may slow the growth of part-time employment by making it less economically attractive to employers. On the other hand, such changes could also make part-time employment more attractive to workers.

The other factor that will continue to impact on involuntary part-time employment levels is the business cycle. As in the past, future economic recessions are expected to be accompanied by increases in involuntary part-time employment. By the same token, prolonged economic upturns could lead to some decline in this type of employment.

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For further information see the report "The Growth of Part-time Work in a Changing Industrial Environment" by Jean-Marc Levesque in ***The Labour Force***, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001, May 1987.

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES FOR THE FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME LABOUR FORCES

by Heather A. Clemenson

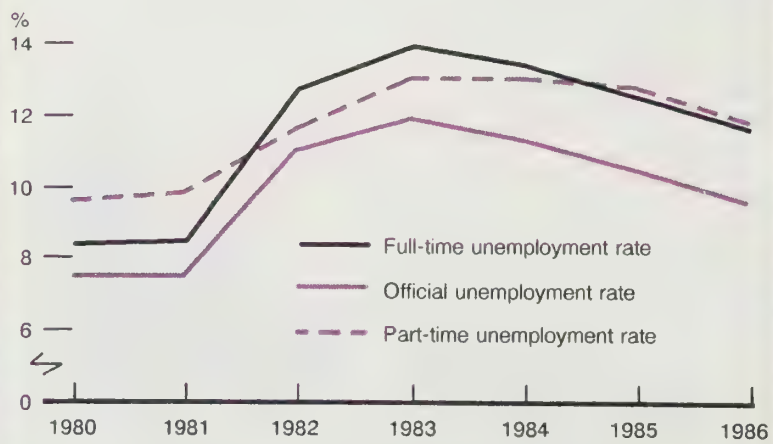


The official unemployment rate receives more public attention than any other labour statistic. Yet even though it is the most comprehensive measure of overall employment conditions, the official rate does not, by itself, describe the complete picture. To complement the official unemployment rate, a series of supplementary unemployment rates[1] have been produced by Statistics Canada. These rates illuminate the multi-dimensional nature of the labour market in Canada. Unemployment rates for the full-time and part-time labour forces are two such measures.

Comparison of Unemployment Rates, 1980-1986

In 1980 and 1981, the annual average unemployment rate for the part-time labour force was higher than that for the full-time labour force. This suggests that persons looking for part-time work were experiencing greater difficulty finding jobs than were those looking for full-time work. During the recession of the early 1980s, though, the full-time unemployment rate exceeded the part-

Official, Full-time and Part-time Unemployment Rates, 1980-1986

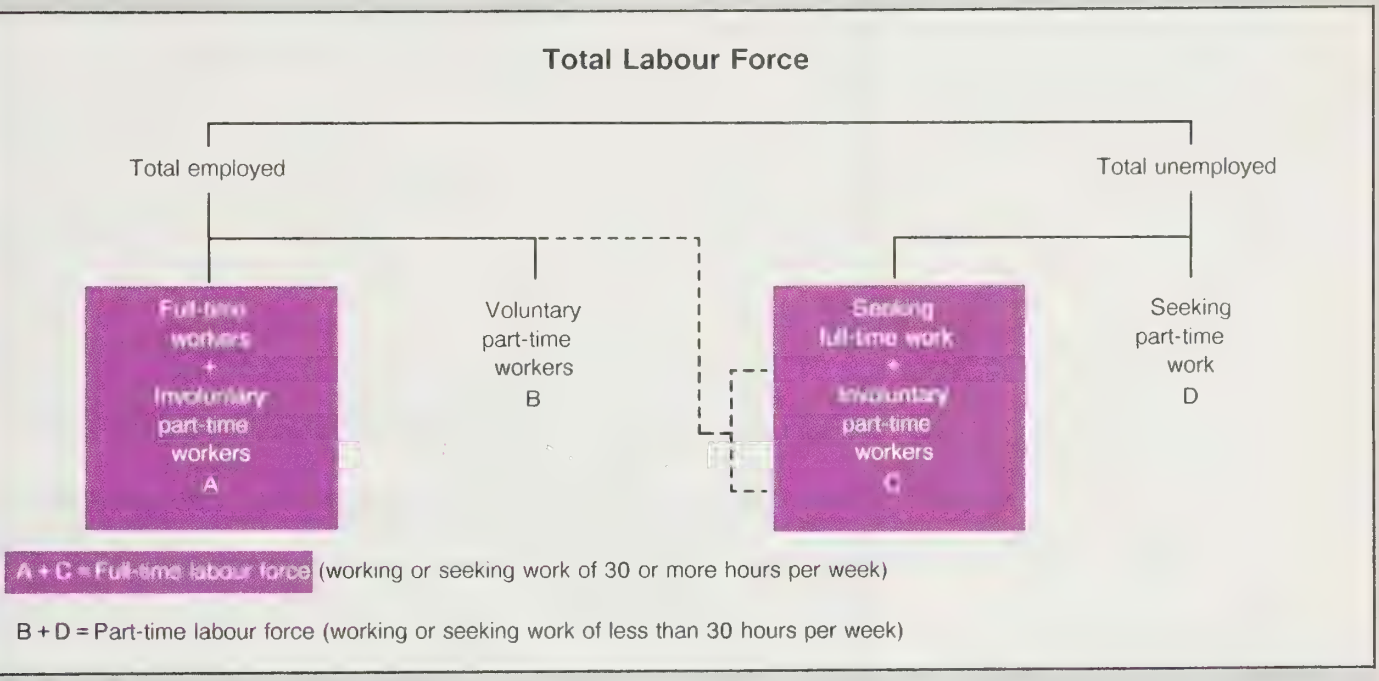


Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201, *Historical Labour Force Statistics*, and The Labour Force Survey.

[1] For a description and analysis of eight alternative measures to the official unemployment rate see "Alternative Concepts and Measures of Unemployment" by George Jackson in ***The Labour Force***, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001, February 1987.

Composition of the Full-time and Part-time Labour Forces

The idea of two distinct labour forces, one full-time and one part-time, is central to understanding the full-time and part-time unemployment rates. The full-time labour force includes all persons who either work or want to work full-time. In this definition, involuntary part-time workers are included in the full-time labour force as they want full-time work. The part-time labour force includes only persons who voluntarily choose to work part-time, that is, for various reasons, they do not want full-time employment.



time unemployment rate. In 1983, for example, the full-time rate was 13.9% while the part-time rate was 13.0%. Both rates declined in the 1984-1986 period, but the part-time unemployment rate did not decline as rapidly as the full-time rate. As a result, in 1986, the annual average part-time unemployment rate (11.8%) was slightly higher than the full-time unemployment rate (11.6%). Both these rates were above the official 1986 unemployment rate of 9.6%.

Turning points in the annual average unemployment rate of the full-time labour force in the 1980-1986 period coincided with those of the official unemployment rate. As well, throughout this period, the full-time rate exceeded the official rate. However, as the number of involuntary part-time workers, who are not considered as unemployed in the calculation of the official unemployment rate, grew in relative terms during the first half of this decade, the gap between the official and full-time unemployment rates increased.

The annual average unemployment rate for the part-time labour force followed a slightly different pattern. Though this rate did fluctuate somewhat during the recession, on the whole, it was relatively stable over the 1980-1986 period. The part-time unemployment rate ranged from a low of 9.6% in 1980 to a high of 13.0% in 1983, a difference of 3.4 percentage points. In com-

How the Unemployment Rates are Calculated

Official unemployment rate: measures the unutilized supply of labour by showing the unemployed as a percentage of the total labour force. The labour force is the employed plus the unemployed.

$$\frac{\text{unemployed}}{\text{labour force}} \times 100 = 9.6\% \text{ in 1986}$$

Unemployment rate of the full-time labour force: measures the unutilized supply of full-time labour as a percentage of the total full-time labour force. Half of the involuntary part-time workers are counted as unemployed since they usually work about half the number of hours of full-time workers.

$$\frac{\text{unemployed seeking full-time work} + \tfrac{1}{2}\text{ involuntary part-time workers}}{\text{full-time labour force}} \times 100 = 11.6\% \text{ in 1986}$$

Unemployment rate of the part-time labour force: measures the unutilized supply of voluntary part-time labour as a percentage of the total voluntary part-time labour force.

$$\frac{\text{unemployed seeking part-time work}}{\text{voluntary part-time labour force}} \times 100 = 11.8\% \text{ in 1986}$$

parison, the range for the full-time unemployment rate over the same period was 5.5 percentage points.

Full-time and Part-time Unemployment Rates for Men and Women

There are quite pronounced differences in the unemployment experience of men and women in both the full-time and part-time labour forces. Women had consistently higher full-time unemployment rates than men over the 1980-1986 period. In 1986, the full-time unemployment rate for women was 13.6% compared to 10.2% for men. The higher rate for women is partly due to the fact that involuntary part-time workers are predominantly women. Women, for example, made up almost 70% of involuntary part-time workers in 1986.

On the other hand, men in the part-time labour force experienced higher unemployment rates than female part-timers. In 1986, the unemployment rate for male part-time workers was 14.6% compared to 10.6% for female part-timers.

Percentage Distribution of the Full-time Labour Force and Involuntary Part-time Workers, by Age and Sex, 1986

	% of full-time labour force	% of involuntary part-time workers
Men - 15-24	10.5	16.4
- 25 and over	50.3	15.0
Total men	60.8	31.4
Women - 15-24	8.7	23.5
- 25 and over	30.6	45.2
Total women	39.3	68.7
Total	100.0	100.0

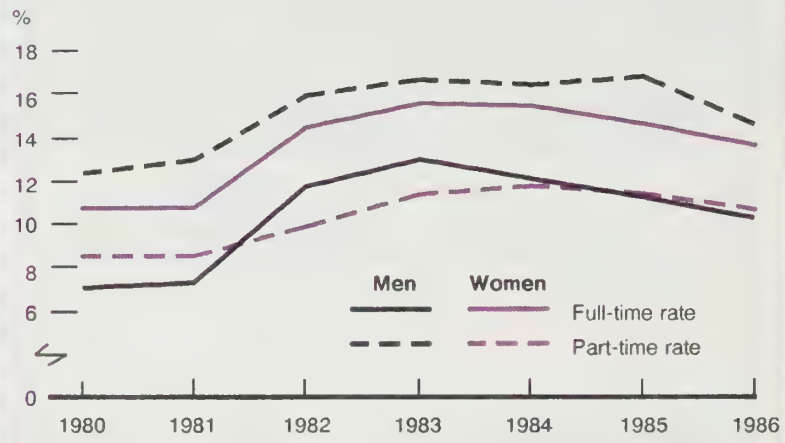
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001, *The Labour Force*.

Full-time Unemployment Rates Highest Among Young Workers

Young people aged 15-24 have experienced higher unemployment rates than the population aged 25 and over throughout the 1980s. The recession was a particularly difficult time for young people seeking full-time work. In 1983, 26.5% of young men and 23.1% of young women in the full-time labour force were unemployed. These rates were considerably higher than the official unemployment rates for both men (22.4%) and women (17.0%) in this age group in 1983. Since 1983, the employment situation has improved for young full-time workers, although the full-time unemployment rates of 20.2% for men and 19.7% for women in this age range remained very high in 1986. In comparison, the official unemployment rates in this age group in 1986 were 16.5% for men and 13.8% for women.

Women experienced higher unemployment rates than men in the full-time labour force aged 25 and over. The rate for women in this age range peaked at 13.1% in 1983 and remained high at 11.9% in 1986. The equivalent rates for men were 9.8% in 1983 and 8.2% in 1986. The fact that women aged 25 and over have

Unemployment Rates for Men and Women in the Full-time and Part-time Labour Forces, 1980-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

Official, Full-time and Part-time Unemployment Rates, by Age and Sex, 1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001, *The Labour Force*, and The Labour Force Survey.

consistently found it more difficult to find full-time work is reflected in the composition of the involuntary part-time work force. In 1986, 45% of all involuntary part-time workers were women aged 25 and over. At the same time, women in this age range made up only 31% of the total labour force. In comparison, men aged 25 and over accounted for 50% of the total labour force but just 15% of involuntary part-time workers.

Rates Across Canada – Recession and Recovery

There have been marked differences in unemployment rates across Canada, both during and after the recession. In Atlantic Canada, the severity of unemployment is reflected in both the full-time and part-time unemployment rates. In 1986, 18.2% of the full-time labour force and 14.0% of part-time workers in this region were unemployed.

The greatest impacts of the recession, however, occurred in British Columbia and the Prairie Provinces. In British Columbia, both the full-time and part-time unemployment rates were below the Canadian averages in 1981. Between 1981 and 1984, however, the full-time unemployment rate in British Columbia increased from 7.6% to 18%, a rise unparallelled in any other region. In 1986, the full-time unemployment rate of 15.5% in British Columbia was still almost four percentage points above the national rate. Also, since 1982, British Columbia has had the highest part-time unemployment rate in Canada.

Unemployment rates also rose dramatically in the Prairie Provinces. The full-time unemployment rate in this region climbed from an annual average of 4.9% in 1981, by far the lowest rate for any region in Canada that year, to 11.6% in 1984. Although the full-time unemployment rate declined in the Prairie region after 1984, the 1986 rate of 10.4% was still more than twice the 1981 rate. The unemployment rate for the part-time labour force also almost doubled in the Prairie Provinces, increasing from 6.4% in 1980 to 12.0% in 1986.

There were also differences in the relative speed of the post-recession recovery in the various regions of Canada. Full-time and part-time unemployment rates in both Ontario and Quebec began to decline in 1984, and by 1986 had fallen more than in the other regions.

In Western Canada, the economic situation began to improve for the full-time labour force in 1985, but in Atlantic Canada improvements, as measured by this unemployment rate, were delayed until 1986. A different picture emerges for the part-time labour force in these regions. In Atlantic Canada, part-time unemployment rates began to fall in 1985, whereas in British Columbia and the Prairie Provinces improvements in this measure were not evident until 1986. Relative to all other regions, the decline in the part-time unemployment rate has been slowest in the Prairies. There was a drop of only 0.3 percentage points in the part-time unemployment rate in this region in 1986, compared to a decline of 1% for Canada as a whole.

Full-time and Part-time Unemployment Rates, by Region, 1980-1986

	Full-time labour force						
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
	%						
Atlantic Provinces	12.5	13.3	16.6	17.7	18.2	18.9	18.2
Quebec	11.0	11.8	15.9	16.2	15.1	14.2	13.5
Ontario	7.6	7.2	11.1	11.9	10.5	9.3	8.2
Prairie Provinces	4.6	4.9	8.7	11.4	11.6	10.8	10.4
British Columbia	7.7	7.6	14.1	16.8	18.0	17.3	15.5
Canada	8.4	8.5	12.7	13.9	13.4	12.5	11.6
	Part-time labour force						
	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
	%						
Atlantic Provinces	11.9	11.5	13.0	13.4	14.9	14.6	14.0
Quebec	10.5	11.2	12.7	14.5	13.0	13.2	12.2
Ontario	10.5	10.8	12.1	13.0	12.7	11.9	10.3
Prairie Provinces	6.4	6.6	8.2	10.6	11.8	12.3	12.0
British Columbia	10.1	9.3	13.7	14.6	15.7	15.8	15.1
Canada	9.6	9.8	11.6	13.0	13.0	12.8	11.8

Source: Statistics Canada, The Labour Force Survey, unpublished data.

Summary

The two supplementary unemployment rates discussed in this report reveal differences in the labour force market experiences of men and women of different ages which cannot be seen in the official unemployment rates. Among full-time labour force participants, women generally experience the greatest difficulty in finding employment. In contrast, while women predominate in the part-time labour force, it is men who have the highest part-time unemployment rates.

The full-time unemployment rate has closely followed the pattern of the official unemployment rate. However, the part-time rate has reacted differently to changes in economic conditions. A possible explanation is that some part-time employees withdraw from the labour force, for example, following a job loss during a recession, and then re-enter the labour force at a later date when the economic situation improves. Likewise, some who would have begun looking for a part-time job may postpone their search if employment conditions are not favourable. In contrast, persons seeking full-time jobs may have a higher level of commitment to the labour force and continue to look for work during periods of high unemployment.

Heather A. Clemenson *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

THE DECLINE OF STROKE MORTALITY

by Betsy MacKenzie

In 1985, almost 14,000 Canadians died as a result of strokes. The death rate due to stroke, however, has declined in Canada during the last several decades. The age-standardized death rate[1] for stroke declined from 105 per 100,000 population in 1950 to 42 in 1985. The decline in this rate was particularly sharp in the last decade. Over 40% of the overall decline in the stroke death rate between 1950 and 1985 occurred in the 1975-1985 period.

The decline in the death rate due to stroke has been greater than the decline in the overall death rate in Canada. Between 1950 and 1985, the age-standardized death rate due to stroke declined 60%, while the overall death rate fell 40%. As a result, the number of deaths due to stroke as a percentage of all deaths in Canada has declined. Strokes were involved in 8% of all deaths in 1985, down from 10% in 1950.

The death rate due to stroke has also been falling faster than the death rate for heart disease, although both have declined significantly. Between 1950 and 1985, the age-standardized death rate for stroke fell 60%, while that for heart disease declined 44%. As well, during the last ten years of this period, the stroke death rate fell 34%, compared to 25% for the death rate due to heart disease.

[1] The age-standardized rate is the rate that would have occurred if the age and sex distribution of the population had remained the same as the standard population throughout the period under study. The rates in this report are standardized to the 1971 population.



One possible explanation for the relatively large decline in the stroke death rate has been the development of effective medical treatment for hypertension, which is a significant risk factor for strokes. Although there has been a dramatic improvement in the detection and management of this problem, particularly in the last ten years, hypertension remains a major health problem in Canada. The General Social Survey estimated, for example, that in 1985, 3.2 million adult Canadians had high blood pressure.

While strokes have declined as a cause of death in Canada, this disease remains an important cause of hospitalization. While stroke victims represented fewer than 2% of all hospital separations[2] in Canada in 1982, they accounted for nearly 9% of all days spent in hospital that year.

Age and Sex Differences in Stroke Mortality

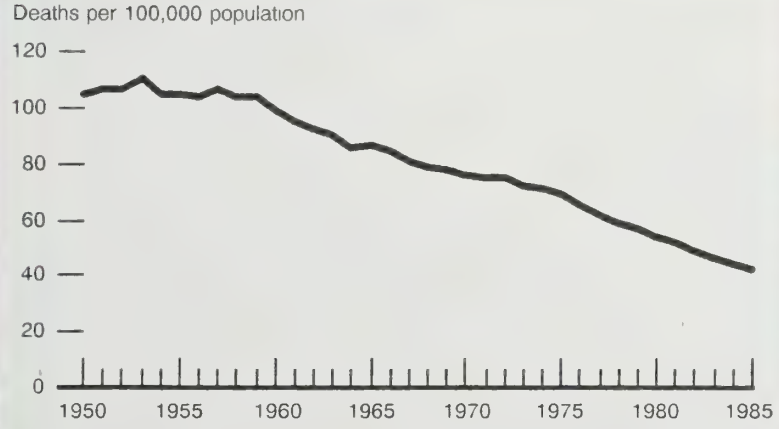
There are large differences in stroke mortality depending on age and sex. Stroke is predominantly a disease of the elderly, with 85% of all stroke-related deaths occurring in the population aged 65 and over. The stroke death rate is slightly higher for elderly women than for elderly men. In 1985, there were 467 deaths due to stroke for every 100,000 women over the age of 65 compared with 446 for men. However, because there are many more elderly women than men in Canada, women actually accounted for 59% of all stroke deaths of those aged 65 and over.

The incidence of death due to stroke declined sharply for both elderly men and women in the last

Cont'd page 37

[2] A separation occurs when a patient is either discharged from hospital or dies.

Age-standardized[1] Stroke Death Rate, 1950-1985



[1] Standardized to the 1971 population.
Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division, Vital Statistics and Health Status Section, unpublished data.

What is stroke?

Stroke is a neurological disorder caused by a sudden shortage of blood flow, and therefore oxygen to the brain. The leading cause of stroke – it occurs in about 85% of cases – is a blood clot within an artery supplying the brain. The blood clot usually occurs at a site of arteriosclerosis, or "hardening of the arteries". The remaining strokes are caused by a hemorrhage from a blood vessel within the brain.

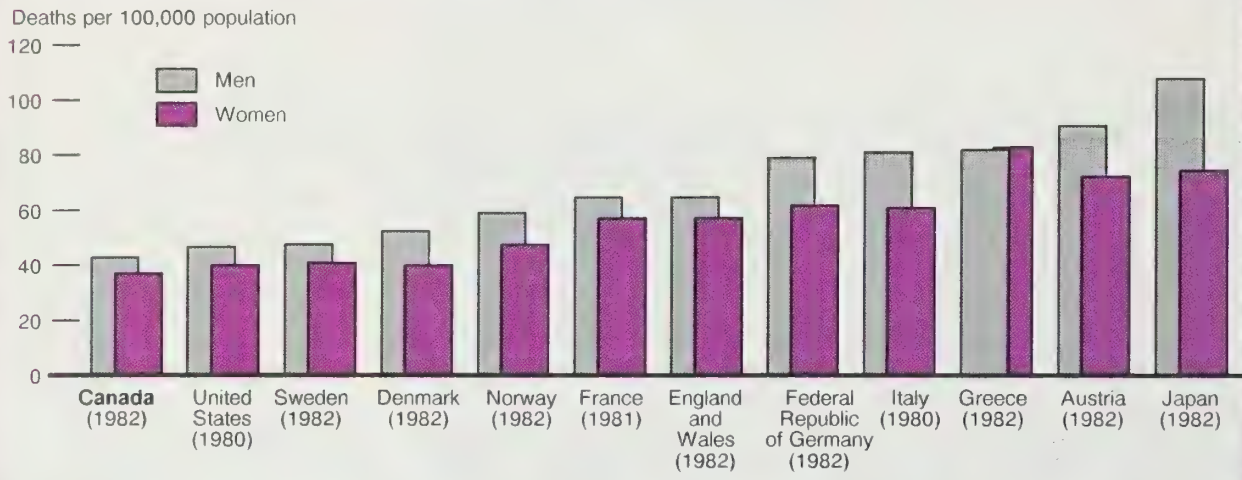
Symptoms of stroke can include weakness, paralysis, visual and speech impairment, and coma. The outcome depends on the type and severity of the stroke. In many cases, survival is accompanied by depression and a long period of difficult and expensive rehabilitation.

Stroke Mortality in Canada from an International Perspective

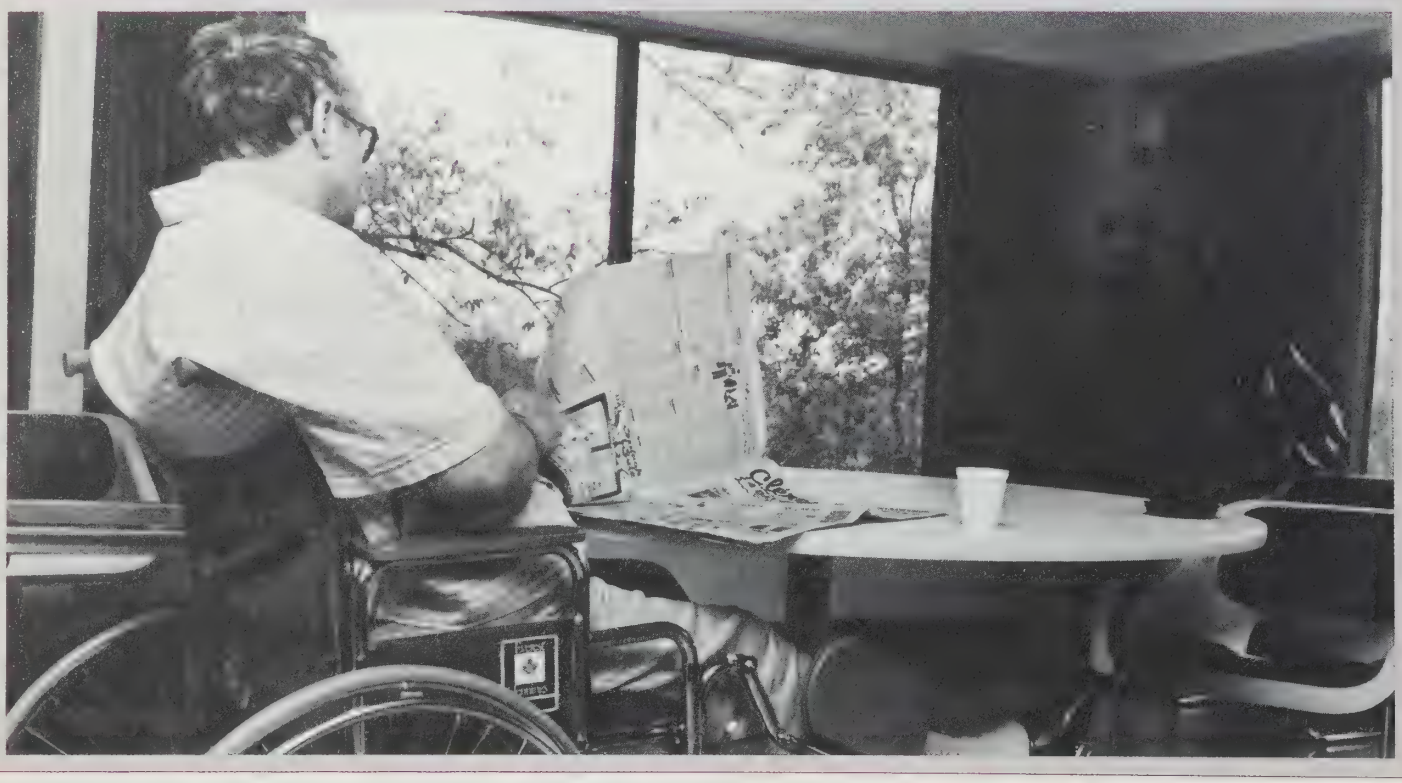
Canada has the lowest rate of stroke mortality among major industrial nations from which comparative figures are readily available. According to the World Health Organization, the age-standardized[1] stroke death rates in Canada in 1982 were 44 for men and 37 for women. The comparable figures in the United States (in 1980) were 47 for men and 40 for women. At the same time, in Western European countries, the death rate due to strokes for men ranged from 48 per 100,000 men in Sweden to 91 in Austria; for women, the stroke death rate ranged from 40 in Denmark to 83 in Greece. Stroke mortality was also very high in Japan. In 1982, there were 108 stroke deaths for every 100,000 Japanese men and 75 for women.

[1] These figures differ somewhat from other figures in this report in that they are standardized to the 1976 world population.

Age-standardized[1] Stroke Death Rate in Selected Countries



[1] Standardized to the 1976 world population.
Source: World Health Organization, *1984 Statistics Annual.*



Hospital Separations[1] and Days Spent in Hospital, by Selected Causes, 1982

	Total separations		Total days in hospital	
	000s	%	000s	%
Strokes	66.5	1.8	3,811.3	8.9
All diseases of the circulatory system	408.9	11.4	9,533.6	22.4
Total all causes	3,600.0	100.0	42,650.0	100.0

[1] A separation occurs when a patient is either discharged from hospital or dies.
Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division, Health Care Section.

Stroke Deaths per 100,000 Population, by Age and Sex, 1975 and 1985

	Men			Women		
	1975	1985	% change	1975	1985	% change
Age group						
25-44 years	5.0	3.5	−30.0	6.2	3.4	−45.2
45-64 years	55.6	33.6	−39.6	44.5	26.3	−40.9
65 years and over	727.2	446.0	−38.7	702.9	467.1	−33.5

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-206, *Mortality: Summary List of Causes.*

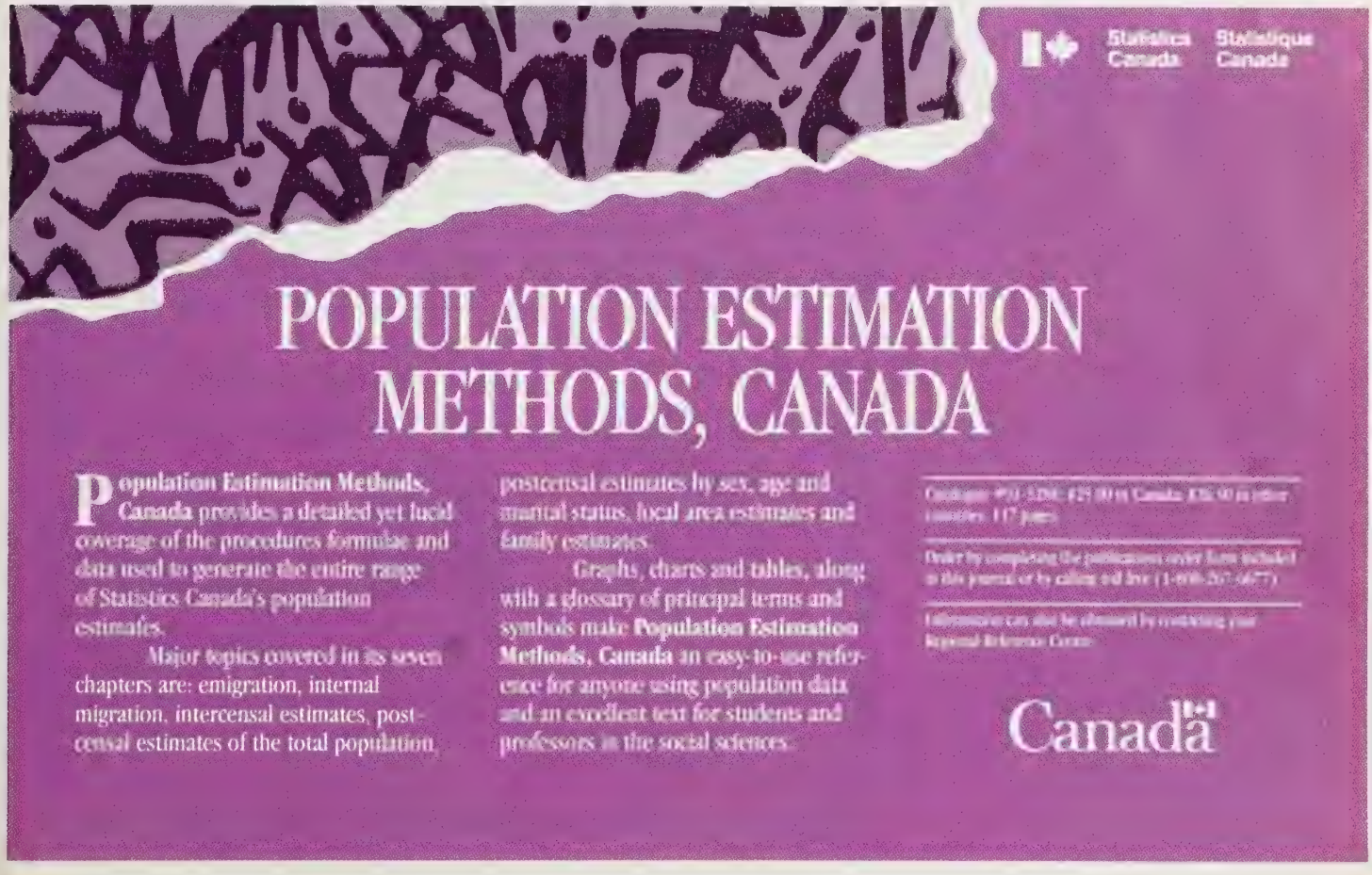
decade. Among the population aged 65 and over, the death rate due to strokes declined 39% for men and 34% for women between 1975 and 1985.

Stroke mortality also declined substantially among Canadians under the age of 65. Death rates due to stroke in the population under age 65, however, are considerably lower than rates for the elderly. Among those aged 45-64, there were 34 deaths due to stroke per 100,000 men, and 26 for every 100,000 women in 1985. Between 1975 and 1985, the death rate due to stroke fell by around 40% for both men and women in this age group.

In 1985, there were less than 4 stroke-related deaths per 100,000 population for both men and women aged 25-44. These rates were down from 5 deaths per 100,000 men aged 25-44, and 6 per 100,000 women in this age range in 1975.

Betsy MacKenzie *is a staff writer for Canadian Social Trends.*

For more information on strokes and other cardiovascular diseases see Nicholls, E., Nair, C., MacWilliam, L., Moen, J., and Mao, Y., *Cardiovascular Disease in Canada,* Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-544.



1976 AND 1982 POSTSECONDARY GRADUATES: SELECTED HIGHLIGHTS OF THEIR LABOUR FORCE EXPERIENCE

This article has been adapted from the report *The Changing Labour Market for Postsecondary Graduates, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-518,* by **W. Garnett Picot, Ted Wannell** and **Doug Lynd.**

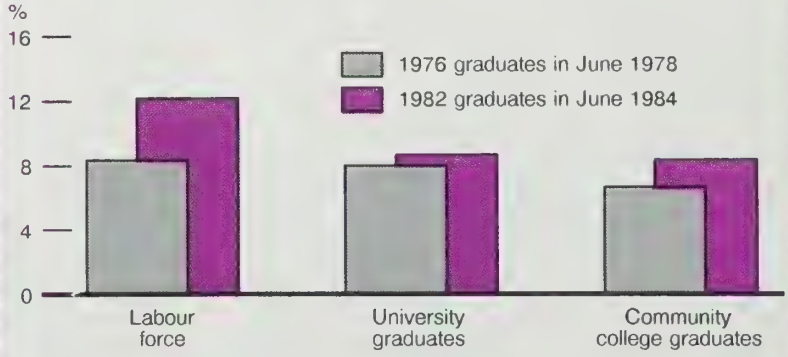
Overall unemployment rates were much higher in Canada in 1984 than in 1978. While both 1982 university[1] and community college graduates also experienced higher unemployment rates in 1984 than did 1976 graduates in 1978, the effect of changing economic conditions on unemployment rates was considerably less for postsecondary graduates than for the labour force as a whole.

Between June 1978 and June 1984, the unemployment rate (weighted to correspond to the age distributions of 1976 and 1982 graduates) in Canada (excluding Quebec) increased by almost four percentage points, from 8.4% to 12.3%. In contrast, the unemployment rate of recent university graduates increased by just over half a percentage point - from 8.0% for 1976 graduates in June 1978 to 8.6% for 1982 graduates in June 1984. In the same period, the unemployment rate among community college graduates increased 1.7 percentage points, from 6.7% for 1976 graduates in 1978 to 8.4% for 1982 graduates in 1984. One reason for the smaller increases in unemployment among postsecondary graduates was that the growth in the types of jobs which these graduates tend to enter was greater than job growth in the economy as a whole.

[1] Includes all bachelor's, master's and doctoral graduates except those from Quebec. Quebec institutions did not participate in the 1978 National Graduates Survey. While Quebec did participate in the 1984 National Graduates Survey, graduates from Quebec institutions have not been included in the 1984 data to permit the comparison of results from 1978 and 1984.

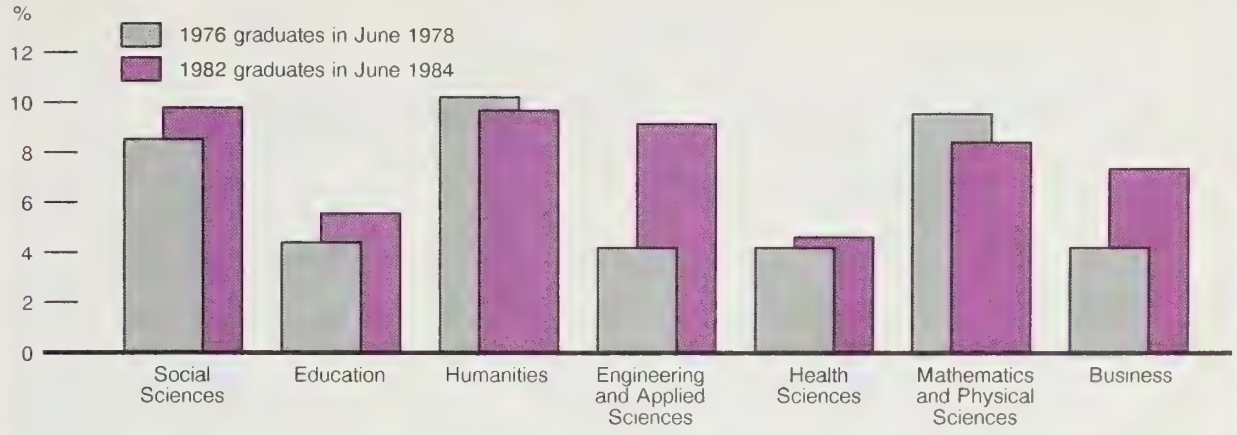


Unemployment Rates of the Total Labour Force[1] and Postsecondary Graduates Two Years after Graduation, June 1978 and 1984[2]



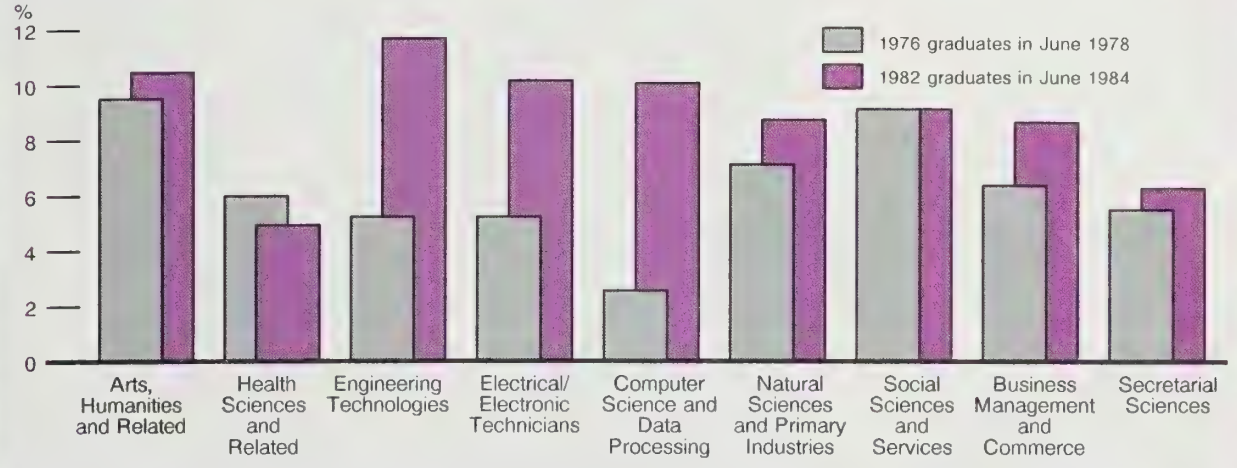
[1] Weighted to correspond to age distribution of 1976 and 1982 graduates.
[2] Excludes graduates from Quebec institutions.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-518, *The Changing Labour Market for Postsecondary Graduates, 1975-1984.*

Unemployment Rates of University Graduates Two Years After Graduation, by Field of Study, June 1978 and 1984[1]



[1] Excludes graduates from Quebec institutions.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-518, *The Changing Labour Market for Postsecondary Graduates, 1975-1984.*

Unemployment Rates of College Graduates Two Years After Graduation, by Field of Study, June 1978 and 1984[1]



[1] Excludes graduates from Quebec institutions.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-518, *The Changing Labour Market for Postsecondary Graduates, 1975-1984.*

Unemployment by Field of Study

Although the unemployment rates for university and college graduates rose more slowly than the rate for the overall labour force, graduates from some fields of study experienced large increases in unemployment, whereas the unemployment rates for graduates from other fields actually declined.

Mathematics and physical sciences was one of the few fields of study for which the unemployment rate of recent graduates declined between 1978 and 1984. Two years after their graduation, 1976 university graduates from this field, which includes such disciplines as statistics, computer science, physics and chemistry, had an unemployment rate of 9.6%. The unemployment rate in 1984 for 1982 graduates from these disciplines was 8.5%.

On the other hand, there was a large increase in the unemployment rate for graduates of community college data processing and computer science programmes. In 1978, recent graduates from these programmes had one of the lowest unemployment rates for all postsecondary graduates, just 2.6%. In 1984, 1982 graduates from these programmes had an unemployment rate of 10.1%, one of the highest rates for all postsecondary fields of study.

The unemployment rate for graduates from health science programmes was relatively unaffected by changes in economic conditions. Recent university health science

graduates experienced only a marginal increase in their unemployment rate, from 4.3% in 1978 to 4.7% in 1984. Their college counterparts experienced a drop in unemployment over the same period, from 6.0% to 5.0%.

The unemployment rate for university engineering and applied sciences graduates two years after their graduation more than doubled between 1978 and 1984, increasing from 4.3% to 9.2%. Over this period, there was both a rapid increase in the supply of these graduates and a decrease in job opportunities in these occupations. College graduates in the same general fields of study experienced similar increases in their unemployment rates. College engineering technologists, and electrical or electronic technicians who graduated in 1976 both had an unemployment rate of 5.3% in 1978. Unemployment rates for comparable 1982 graduates in 1984 were 11.8% and 10.2%, respectively.

Unemployment rates also increased for recent business graduates between 1978 and 1984, despite growth in the occupations these graduates tend to enter. This may be due, in part, to the fact that the absolute number of both university and college business graduates doubled over this period. While the unemployment rate among 1982 university business graduates (7.4%) was below the overall unemployment rate for university graduates (8.6%) in 1984, this was a marked increase over the 1978 rate of 4.3% for 1976 graduates. The trend in the unemployment rate for college business graduates two years after graduation was similar to that for all college graduates, rising from 6.4% in 1978 to 8.7% in 1984.

There were also modest increases in the unemployment rates for social science and education graduates between 1978 and 1984, as well as a small decline in the rate for graduates of humanities programmes. The unemployment rate for social science graduates increased from 8.6% to 9.8% in this period, while that for education rose from 4.5% to 5.6%. For recent humanities graduates, the unemployment rate declined from 10.3% to 9.7% between 1978 and 1984.

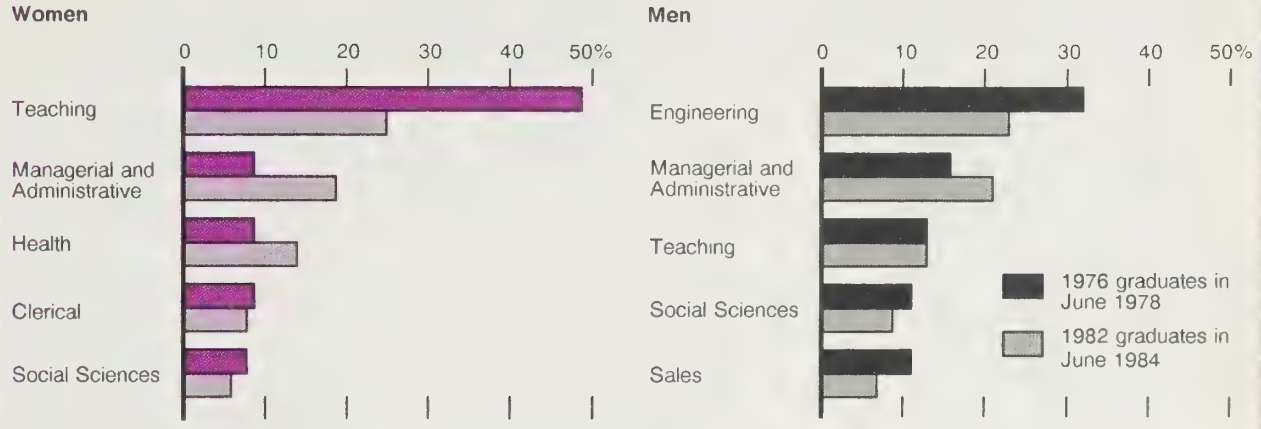
Occupational Changes for University Graduates

Overall changes in employment patterns were also reflected in shifts in the occupational concentration of 1976 and 1982 university graduates. These changes followed somewhat different directions for men and women, although for both, there was a major decline in the percentage of graduates employed in teaching.

The largest share of both 1976 and 1982 female bachelor's and first



Leading Occupational Groups of Bachelor's and First Professional Degree Graduates[1] Employed Full-time Two Years After Graduation, June 1978 and 1984



[1] Excludes graduates from Quebec institutions.
Sources: Statistics Canada, *Higher Education - Hired?*, and National Graduates Survey, June 1984.



professional degree graduates employed full-time two years after their graduation was in teaching and related occupations. However, the percentage of recent female graduates employed as teachers dropped sharply, from 49% in 1978 to 32% in 1984.

The proportion of male graduates in teaching also declined substantially. Two years after their graduation, 13% of male 1982 bachelor's and first professional degree graduates were employed in teaching and related occupations. This was down from 25% in 1978, when teaching was the leading occupation for 1976 male graduates.

There was a significant increase in the percentage of female graduates employed in managerial and administrative occupations in this period. In 1984, 16% of female 1982 graduates were employed full-time in one of these occupations, compared with 9% of female 1976 graduates in 1978.

In contrast, there was no change in the proportion of male graduates in managerial and administrative occupations. These occupations accounted for about one in five full-time jobs for recent male undergraduate degree holders in both 1978 and 1984.

The largest proportional increase in the employment of male graduates was accounted for by occupations in the natural sciences,

engineering and mathematics. These occupations made up 23% of full-time jobs for 1982 male bachelor's and first professional degree graduates. A similar category including mathematics, the physical sciences, engineering and architecture accounted for 14% of full-time employment of 1976 male graduates in 1978.

Despite their high educational attainment, about one in ten women graduating with either a bachelor's or first professional degree in both 1976 and 1982 was employed in a clerical position two years after completion of her studies. Few male university graduates, on the other hand, work in clerical occupations.

These statistics indicate a considerable change in labour market conditions for postsecondary graduates between 1978 and 1984. Conditions improved for graduates of some fields of study and deteriorated for others. This deterioration was related, in part, to the effects of the 1981-82 recession on the labour market. These data also demonstrate that changes can occur quite rapidly. As such, labour market conditions for postsecondary graduates may have changed again since 1984.

UPDATE

The population aged 65 and over has grown from 1.4 million in 1961 to 2.7 million in 1986, a rate of increase more than twice that of the population as a whole. In 1986, 10.7% of the population were 65 years and over compared to 7.6 % in 1961.

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Education in Canada

Education in Canada is our compendium of selected education data. In one book you can learn how many students are enrolled in elementary and secondary schools, the percentage of bachelor's and first professional degrees awarded to women now compared to ten years ago and what the average age of the university professor is.

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SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	23,747.3	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,631.8	24,884.5	25,124.1	25,359.8	25,591.1[1]
Annual growth (%)	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9
Immigration	82,939	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	87,794[P]
Emigration	63,559	51,060	43,609	44,823	49,869	48,397	46,252	50,358[P]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.5	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.8[P]
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.9	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	7.5[P]
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	652	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,395	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311	11,634
– goods sector (000s)	3,474	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348	3,417
– services sector (000s)	6,921	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963	8,217
Total unemployment (000s)	836	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328	1,236
Unemployment rate	7.4	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.6
Part-time employment %	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.6
Women's participation rate	49.0	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3	55.1
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	30.3	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income – 1985 $	35,158	36,400	35,450	34,026	33,454	33,431	34,076	*
% of families with low income	13.1	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	13.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	63.3	–	63.6	64.0	–	65.5	64.9	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,184.7	5,106.3	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.9	4,943.4[P]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	623.5	643.4	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	797.4[P]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,803	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	*
Government expenditure on education (1982 $000,000)	22,598.2	22,512.7	23,082.3	23,180.8	24,031.6	23,208.1	24,122.6	23,581.2
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
– men	21.4	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	*
– women	7.0	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	*
% of population 15 + who are regular cigarette smokers – men	38.6	–	36.7	–	34.0	–	33.1	30.8
– women	30.1	–	28.9	–	28.3	–	27.8	25.8
Government expenditure on health (1982 $000,000)	18,456.1	19,564.9	20,831.2	21,672.2	22,745.3	23,846.0	24,078.1	24,942.0
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
– violent	623	648	666	685	692	714	749	798[P]
– property	5,013	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,655[P]
– homicide	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.2[P]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programes[2] (1982 $000,000)	91,126.7	95,340.7	97,499.7	104,289.8	110,095.4	111,700.9	114,838.2	116,467.9
– as a % of total expenditures	59.3	57.7	57.3	58.1	59.9	58.4	58.4	58.9
– as a % of GDP	24.0	24.7	24.7	27.8	28.7	27.8	27.7	27.5
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,332.9	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,145.4	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,547.6	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) – annual % change	+3.9	+1.5	+3.7	-3.3	+3.1	+5.5	+4.0	+3.1
Annual inflation rate (%)	9.2	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1
Urban housing starts	151,717	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863

– Not available; * Not yet available; [P] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.

[1] Estimates for the years 1982 to 1986 will be revised in the fall of 1987 to take into account the 1986 Census results.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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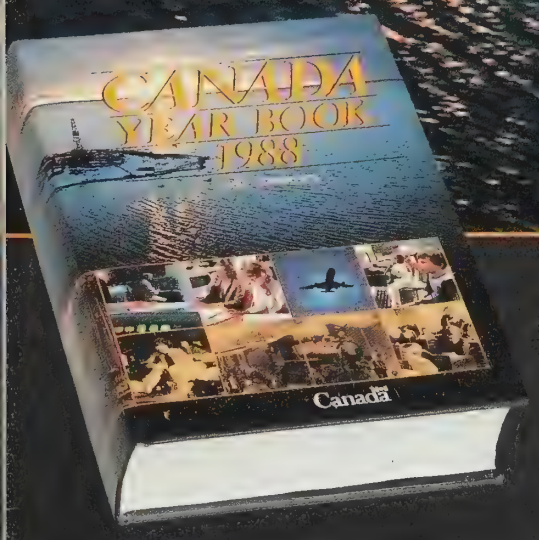
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HOMICIDE IN CANADA ☐ ANNUAL INDEX ☐ 1986 CENSUS HIGHLIGHTS

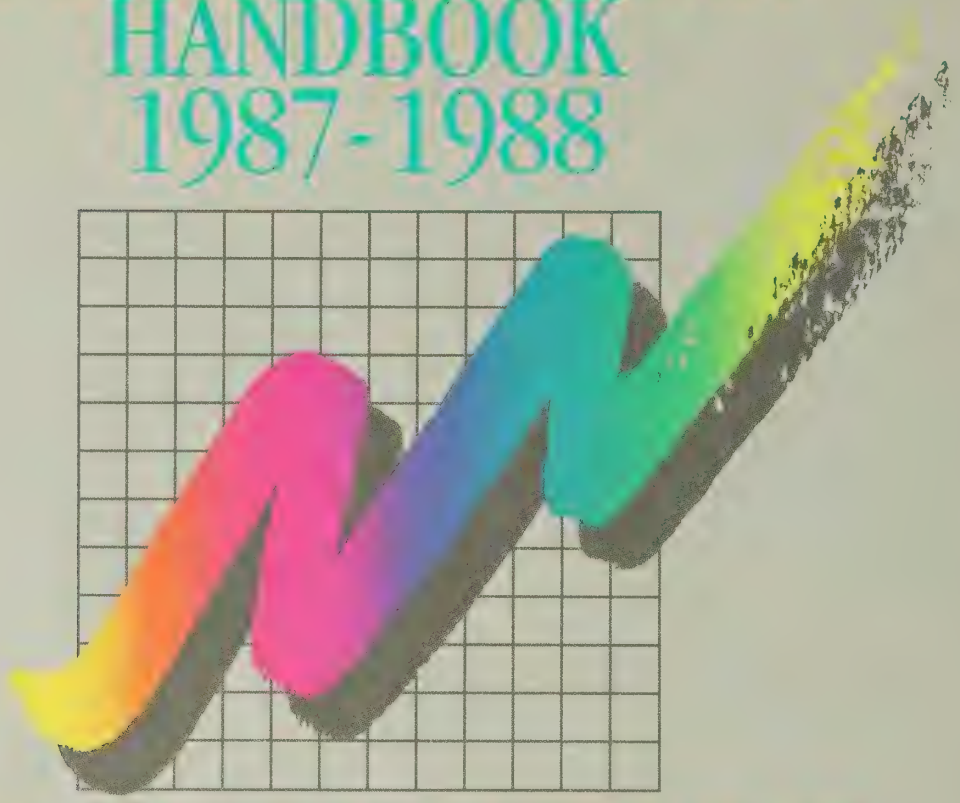
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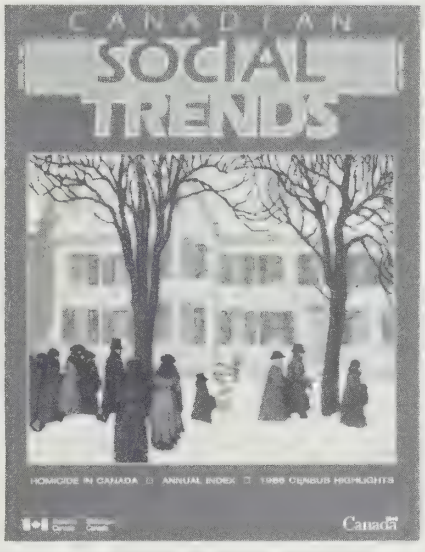
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Return from Church was painted by Lawren Harris in 1919 (oil on canvas 101.6 × 121.9 cm), and was presented as a gift to the National Gallery of Canada in 1960.

About the artist:
Lawren S. Harris (1885-1970) was an original member of the Group of Seven artists whose work is world renowned. Born in Brantford, Ontario, he received his formal education at St. Andrew's College and the University of Toronto. Subsequent to spending four consecutive winters in Europe studying art, he returned to Canada embarking on a successful career as an artist. Lawren Harris travelled extensively throughout Canada, and many of his impressionistic sketches and drawings depict the locations he visited.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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Cover: ***Return from Church***
by Lawren S. Harris National Gallery of Canada, Ottawa.

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HOMICIDE IN CANADA

by Holly Johnson

The homicide rate in Canada has gone through several distinct phases in the past twenty-five years. Between 1962 and 1977, the number of homicides per 100,000 population increased steadily from 1.4 to 3.1. In the period 1978-1985, however, the homicide rate was relatively stable, fluctuating between 2.5 and 2.8. Then, in 1986, the rate dropped sharply to 2.2, the lowest level since 1971.

The actual number of homicides followed a similar pattern. Between 1962 and 1977, the number of homicides almost tripled, increasing from 265 to 711. Then, in the period 1978-1984, the number of homicides stabilized, ranging from a high of 682 in 1983 to a low of 593 in 1980. In 1985, there were 704 homicides in Canada, but the number fell sharply to just 561 in 1986.

Although homicides attract a great deal of publicity, they make up only a small proportion of all reported violent crimes. Between 1962 and 1985, homicides ranged between 0.4% and 0.6% of all reported violent crimes. In 1986, this figure dropped even lower to 0.3%.

The incidence of homicide is also relatively low compared with other forms of non-natural death. In 1985, there were 2.8 homicides per 100,000 population; the same year, there were 16.2 deaths per 100,000 population as a result of traffic accidents, 14.9 as a result of other accidents, and 12.9 suicides.

Homicide Rates Increase from East to West

As with other violent offences, homicide rates in Canada are generally highest in the western provinces and lowest in the Atlantic region. In 1986, Manitoba had the highest provincial homicide rate, with 4.4 homicides for every 100,000 residents. British Columbia (3.1) and Alberta (2.7) were also characterized by relatively high homicide rates. On the other hand, there were no homicides in Prince Edward Island in 1986, and just 0.7 per 100,000 residents in Newfoundland.

The Northwest and Yukon Territories both had homicide rates far in excess of the national rate. In 1986, there were 27.5 homicides per 100,000 residents in the Northwest Territories, while in the Yukon Territory, the rate was 13.1.

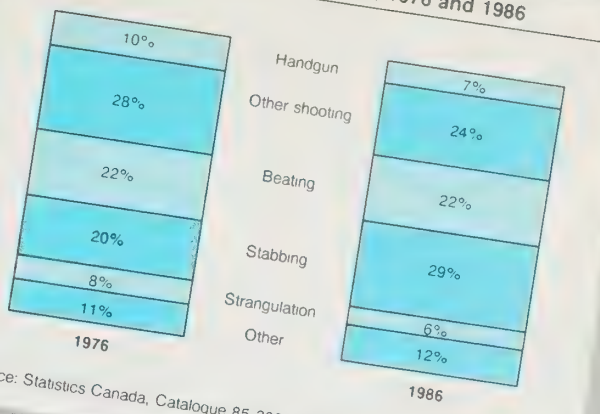


Firearms and Other Methods of Homicide

From 1976 to 1978, about 38% of homicides annually involved firearms. In 1979, the year after gun control legislation came into force, the proportion declined to 33%. Since then, the proportion remained at about that level, except for 1982, when the figure climbed to 37%. In 1986, 31% of homicides were the result of shooting. The proportion of homicides involving handguns, though, remained relatively stable. Throughout the 1976-1985 period, about 10% of homicides involved handguns each year. In 1986, however, the proportion fell to 7%.

Between 1976 and 1986, the percentage of all homicides caused by stabbing increased from 20% to 29%, while the percentage due to beatings remained at 22%.

Methods Used to Commit Homicide, 1976 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209, *Homicide in Canada*

Homicides Committed during Another Crime

In 1986, 17% of all homicides occurred during the commission of another crime. This figure, however, fluctuated somewhat in the last decade. It rose from 13% in 1976 to about 20% in 1981 and 1982, and then fell back to 14% in 1984.

Robbery, theft, and break and enter were the criminal acts that most often resulted in homicide. Homicides that took place during the commission of one of these offences increased from 8% of all homicides in 1976 to 13% in 1985, but dropped to 11% in 1986. Homicides committed during a sexual assault made up 2% of all homicides in 1976, 6% in 1981, and 4% in 1986.

The types of crimes resulting in homicide differ according to the sex of the victim. The most common type of offence resulting in the death of a woman was sexual assault, while for men the most common were robbery, theft, and break and enter.



► *Continued page 4*

was sexual assault, while for men the most common were robbery, theft, and break and enter.

Homicides and Alcohol and Drug Consumption

In a substantial proportion of homicides, either the suspect or the victim had consumed alcohol or drugs. Between 1976 and 1986, the proportion of homicides involving these substances ranged from one-quarter to one-third. Most involved alcohol. In 1986, for example, 22% of homicides were classified as alcohol-related, while 3% involved drug usage.

A High Proportion of Homicides Solved

Relative to other crimes, the police solve a high proportion of homicides. In 1986, 76% of homicides resulted in charges being laid against an accused. In another 9% of cases, a suspect was identified but not charged. In most of these cases the suspect either committed suicide immediately after the incident, confessed and subsequently died, or was committed to a mental hospital. Fifteen percent of homicides committed in 1986 were unsolved.

In comparison, police laid charges in only 40% of other violent crimes in 1986, while another 30% were cleared otherwise. Almost 30% of violent crimes other than homicide were not solved.

Homicide Suspects

The majority of homicide suspects are young men. In 1986, 57% of all homicide suspects were men aged 29 or under. Overall, men made up 85% of homicide suspects that year. The age and sex profile of homicide suspects remained relatively constant over the last decade.

Between 1976 and 1986, the annual percentage of homicide suspects of native origin fluctuated between 18% and 23%. In 1986, 20% of homicide suspects were native, a proportion considerably higher than the 3% representa-

Homicide and the Criminal Code

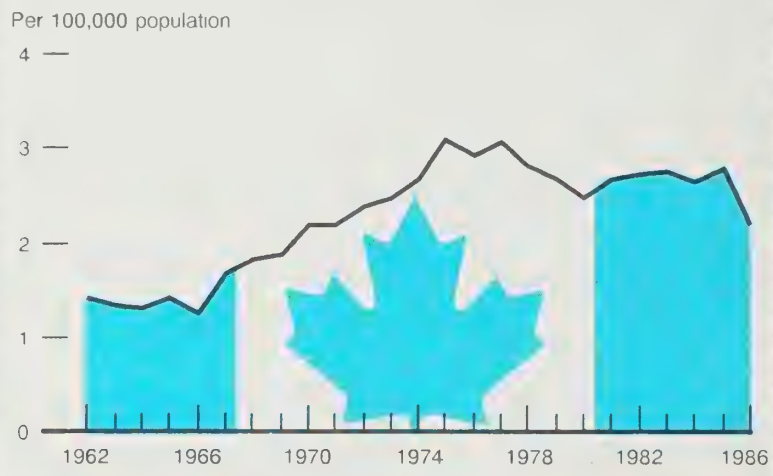
Homicide currently includes three categories: murder, manslaughter and infanticide. According to police records, most homicides, about 91% annually, are murders. Another 8% are classified as manslaughter, while fewer than 1% are infanticides.

Murder is further broken down into first- and second-degree murder. First-degree murder includes planned and deliberate murder; murder of a police or custodial officer killed in the line of duty; murder committed in the course of certain other criminal acts such as hijacking, kidnapping or sexual offences; and murder committed by someone previously convicted of either first- or second-degree murder. All other murder is considered second degree.

The penalty for both first- and second-degree murder is life imprisonment. Persons convicted of first-degree murder are eligible for parole after 25 years; those convicted of second-degree murder must serve at least 10 years before they are eligible for parole.

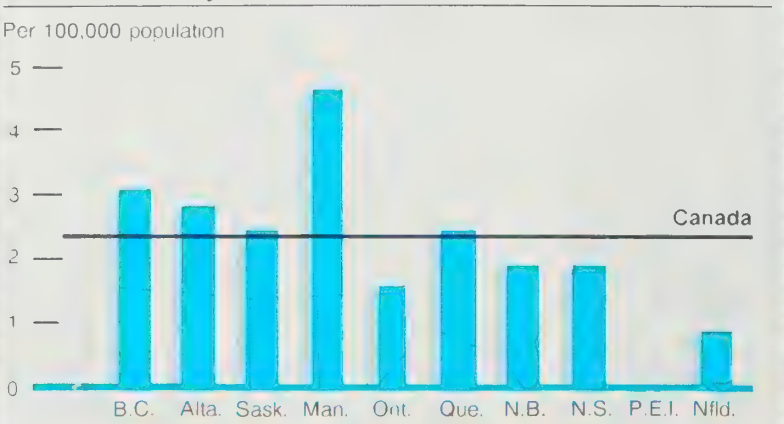
Manslaughter generally is the killing of someone without intent. The maximum sentence for manslaughter is life. Infanticide is the killing of a newborn child by its mother; it carries a maximum sentence of five years imprisonment.

Homicide Rate, 1962-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209, *Homicide in Canada*.

Homicide Rate, by Province, 1986

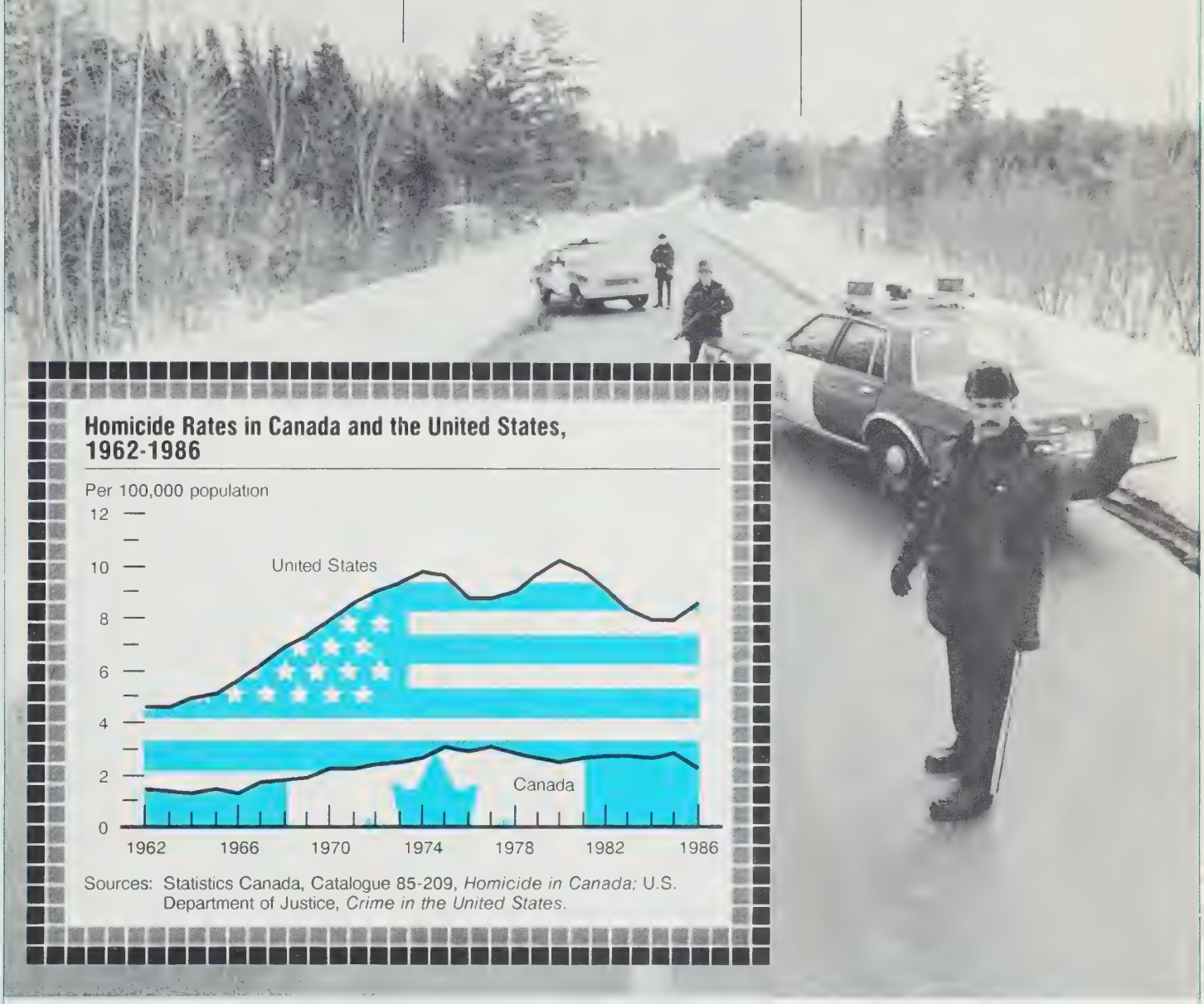


Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209, *Homicide in Canada*

Homicide Rates in Canada and Other Countries

Historically, Canada's homicide rate has been between one-third and one-quarter of that in the United States. In 1986, the homicide rate in Canada was 2.2 compared with 8.6 in the U.S.

Relative to other countries with comparable measures of homicide, the 1985 Canadian homicide rate of 2.8 was higher than in Scotland (1.1), England and Wales (1.2), and Sweden (1.5), but lower than in Italy (4.4) and France (4.6).



Homicide Rates in Canada and the United States, 1962-1986

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209, *Homicide in Canada;* U.S. Department of Justice, *Crime in the United States.*

tion of native people in the general population.

Homicide Victims

Historically, just over one-third of homicide victims have been women and about two-thirds men. In 1986, 36% were female and 64% male. About half of all victims have been between the ages of 18 and 39.

The percentage of homicide victims who were of native origin fluctuated during the last decade, ranging from a low of 12% to a high of 19%. In 1986, 14% of homicide victims were of native origin.

Victim-Suspect Relationship and Location of Homicide

A popular image of homicide is that of a stranger-to-stranger attack in a park or dark alley. While such incidents do occur, the majority of homicides involved people who knew each other, and most took place in a home setting.

In 40% of homicides solved in 1986, suspects and victims were domestically related, while another 35% involved social or business acquaintances. In only 25% of cases did the victim and suspect not know each other.

Domestic homicides were predominantly those in which victims and suspects were immediate marital or common-law family members: 37% involved wives killed by husbands; 29% were children killed by parents; 10% were parents killed by children; 10% were husbands killed by wives; and 4% involved siblings. Other family relationships such as grandparent, uncle, aunt or cousin made up the remaining 9% of domestic homicides.

The largest proportion of homicides occurred in the victim's home. In 1986, 47% of all homicides took place in the home of the victim, which may also have

been the suspect's home. Another 9% occurred in the suspect's residence.

Only 17% of homicides happened in a public place. An additional 10% occurred in a private place, such as another residence, while 2% took place in a correctional institution, and 5% in other locations. The actual location of 9% of homicides was not known.

Homicides in the victim's home are most likely to involve people who share a domestic relationship. Over half (53%) of homicides in the victim's home in 1986 involved relatives, while 17% involved acquaintances. A substantial proportion (12%), however, occurred during the commission of another crime and involved non-relatives. An additional 4% of offenders were unknown to the victims and 14% of cases were unsolved.

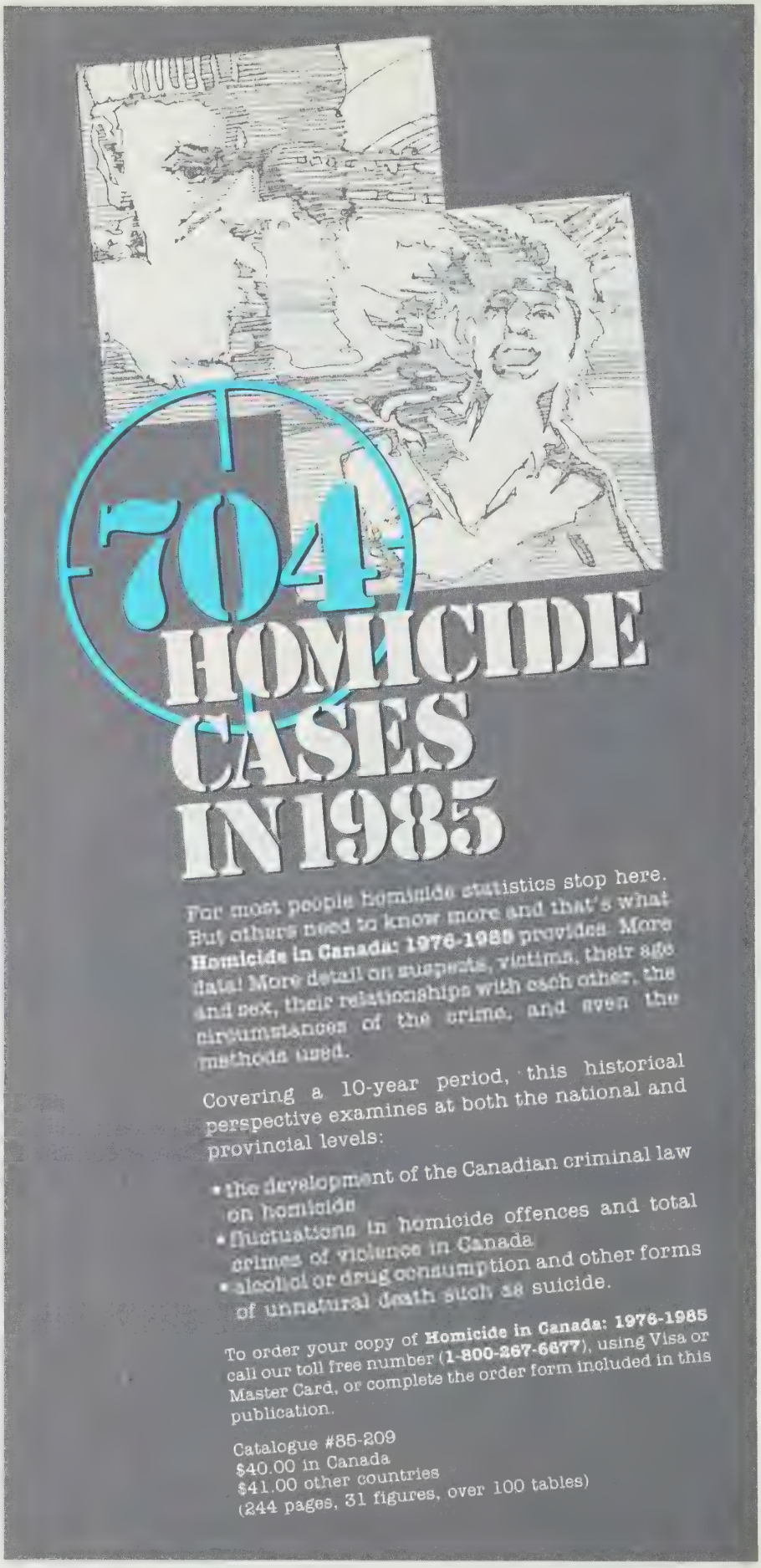
The nature and circumstances of homicides vary depending on the sex of the victims. Women are more likely than men to be killed in their own homes, and at the hands of someone domestically related to them. In 1986, 61% of female homicide victims were killed in their homes compared with 40% of male victims. At the same time, 62% of female homicide victims compared with 27% of male victims were killed by someone related to them through kinship, marriage or common-law union. As well, the overwhelming majority (79%) of victims of spousal homicide were women.

Police and Correctional Officers Murdered

The number of police officers reported murdered while on duty in Canada each year has not changed substantially over the past twenty-five years. Between 1962 and 1986, a total of 92 police officers, or about 4 per year, were murdered. The annual number ranged from a low of 1 to a high of 11. Four officers were murdered in 1986.

Between 1962 and 1986, 16 staff members of correctional institutions were killed in the line of duty. The highest annual number of such homicides in a year was 3 in 1975, 1978, and 1982. In 1986, no correctional staff members were murdered.

Holly Johnson *is an analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.*



WOMEN IN MALE-DOMINATED PROFESSIONS

by Katherine Marshall



One of the most significant social trends in Canada over the past several decades has been the dramatic increase in the labour force participation of women. Concerns have been raised, however, that while the number of working women has increased, most are still employed in so-called women's occupations which are often characterized by poor pay and low status.

There is evidence, however, that in the period 1971-1981, women made substantial in-roads into what have traditionally' been male-dominated professional occupations. These professions are of particular interest because they are generally among the best paid occupations in Canada, and most carry high levels of social status.

For the purposes of this report, professional occupations were those in which 45% or more of those employed in that occupation in 1981 had at least a bachelor's degree. For comparability, the same occupations were considered professional in 1971. A profession was classified as male-dominated if 65% or more of the people employed in it in 1971 were men. Overall, 46 occupational groups met the criterion for being professional; 34 of these were classified as male-dominated.

While women did make substantial gains in male-dominated professions in the 1970s, they were still significantly under-represented in these professions in 1981. As well, because these occupations often involve considerable commitment to the workforce and a demanding workload (elements not generally compatible with a woman's conventional family role), many women entering these fields had to adopt new patterns of behaviour. Women in male-dominated professions, for example, were more likely than women in other occupations to have never married, or if married, to have had fewer children or to be childless.

The total number of women employed in male-dominated professions in Canada rose from 30,410 in 1971 to 83,340 in 1981; this increase accounted for 29% of the overall growth in these occupations during this period. As a result, in 1981, women made up 19% of all those employed in male-

Women in Non-Male-Dominated Professions, 1971 and 1981

	Total number of women			Woman as a % of total growth in profession	Women as a % of total employment in profession	
	1971	1981	Percentage increase 1971-1981	1971-1981	1971	1981
Psychologists	2,035	4,600	126.0	56.1	48.7	52.6
Social workers	7,230	21,020	190.7	68.8	55.4	63.5
Supervisors in library, museum and archival sciences	600	1,440	140.0	79.2	47.4	62.1
Librarians and archivists	6,120	13,575	121.8	84.2	77.2	80.9
Educational and vocational counsellors	1,690	3,050	80.5	92.5	35.8	49.3
Elementary and kindergarten teachers	140,500	152,335	8.4	60.6	83.9	81.5
Secondary school teachers	56,615	63,320	11.8	27.3	47.2	43.8
Postsecondary school teachers	5,730	4,445	-22.4	27.6	49.4	63.9
Teachers of exceptional students	4,420	15,315	246.5	71.0	75.0	72.1
Physiotherapists, occupational and other therapists	5,895	12,525	112.5	86.9	82.9	85.0
Dieticians and nutritionists	2,010	3,280	63.2	91.7	95.9	94.3
Translators and interpreters	1,395	4,340	211.1	64.4	57.1	61.9
Total	**234,240**	**299,250**	**27.8**	**62.3**	**67.4**	**66.2**

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Women in Non-Male-Dominated Professions

By far, the vast majority of professional women work in the 12 occupational groups that were not male-dominated. In 1981, 78% of professional women, compared with just 30% of male professionals, were employed in one of these occupations. In fact, in 1981, 62% of all professional women were in teaching-related positions; however, this proportion was down from 79% in 1971. The female component of non-male-dominated professions ranged from 94% of dieticians and nutritionists, to 44% of secondary school teachers.

Between 1971 and 1981, the representation of women increased in 8 of the 12 non-male-dominated professions and declined in the others. Overall, while female representation dropped in only 5 of the 46 professions, because declines occured in the two largest female-dominated occupations, elementary and kindergarten, and secondary school teachers, the percentage of women in all professional occupations actually fell slightly from 43.1% in 1971 to 42.5% in 1981.

dominated professions, up from 11% in 1971.

During the 1971-1981 period, the proportional representation of women increased in all but 1 of the 34 professions identified as male-dominated. In addition, women accounted for the major share of the overall growth in employment in several of these occupations. In fact, women accounted for more than half of the total increase in employment in 6 of the 34 male-dominated professions. The largest increase occurred among pharmacists; women accounted for 78% of total employment growth in this profession over the 1971-1981 period.

The other professions in which women made up more than half of total employment growth were university teaching and related occupations[1] (55%), mathematicians, statisticians and actuaries (55%), management occupations in the social sciences and related fields (54%), optometrists (52%), and chemists (51%).

Women also accounted for more than 40% of the total increase in employment among community college and vocational school teachers (45%), university teachers[1] (44%), sociologists, anthropologists and other social scientists (43%), and administrators in teaching and related fields (41%).

As a result of this growth, the proportional representation of women in many of these professions also increased dramatically. The percentage of all pharmacists who were women, for example, rose from 25% in 1971 to 42% in 1981. In the same period, women as a proportion of all those employed in university teaching and related occupations increased from 30% to 46%, while for management positions in the social sciences and related fields, the increase was from 34% to 48%.

[1] University teachers include tenured professors. University teaching and related occupations include non-tenured professors and lecturers, teaching and laboratory assistants, and other instructors.

Women in Male-Dominated Professions, 1971 and 1981

	Total number of women			Woman as a % of total growth in profession	Women as a % of total employment in profession	
	1971	1981	Percentage increase 1971-1981	1971-1981	1971	1981
Management occupations, natural sciences and engineering	70	800	1,042.9	7.6	2.7	6.6
Management occupations, social sciences and related fields	760	3,805	400.7	54.2	33.8	48.2
Administrators in teaching and related fields	6,445	9,120	41.5	41.2	21.5	25.0
Chemists	895	1,975	120.7	50.8	11.8	20.4
Geologists	145	795	448.3	23.2	2.9	10.3
Physicists	45	65	44.4	4.0	5.6	5.0
Meteorologists	40	90	125.0	27.0	4.9	9.0
Agriculturists and related scientists	330	1,220	269.7	31.8	5.1	13.2
Biologists and related scientists	830	2,330	180.7	36.4	26.1	31.9
Architects	125	560	348.0	14.0	3.0	7.7
Chemical engineers	65	340	423.1	12.9	1.8	5.9
Civil engineers	235	980	317.0	6.9	1.1	3.0
Electrical engineers	205	1,000	387.8	6.7	1.3	3.7
Mechanical engineers	100	380	280.0	4.5	0.8	1.9
Metallurgical engineers	15	50	233.3	3.8	1.7	2.8
Mining engineers	20	105	425.0	5.9	0.9	2.9
Petroleum engineers	15	225	1,400.0	6.7	1.1	4.9
Nuclear engineers	—	40	—	6.9	—	4.8
Other architects and engineers	140	1,640	1,071.4	15.0	4.0	12.2
Mathematicians, statisticians and actuaries	1,010	2,070	105.0	55.9	25.0	34.7
Economists	640	2,570	301.6	28.8	11.0	20.5
Sociologists, anthropologists and related social scientists	170	540	217.6	42.5	33.0	39.0
Judges and magistrates	75	220	193.3	18.6	5.7	10.5
Lawyers and notaries	860	5,390	526.7	24.9	5.2	15.5
Ministers of religion	900	1,785	98.3	26.9	4.5	7.6
University teachers	5,190	9,785	88.5	43.7	19.7	26.5
Other university teaching and related occupations	1,525	6,170	304.6	55.0	30.3	45.8
Community college and vocational school teachers	3,280	13,770	319.8	45.3	33.0	41.6
Physicians and surgeons	3,150	7,255	130.3	33.4	10.7	17.4
Dentists	330	860	160.6	13.6	4.9	8.1
Veterinarians	75	605	706.7	30.2	4.3	17.2
Osteopaths and chiropractors	80	340	325.0	22.0	7.3	14.9
Pharmacists	2,540	6,090	139.8	78.3	25.3	41.8
Optometrists	105	365	247.6	52.0	6.7	17.7
Total	**30,410**	**83,340**	**174.1**	**29.0**	**11.0**	**18.6**

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

The proportional representation of women among optometrists, veterinarians, and lawyers and notaries also rose by 10 percentage points or more. However, even with these increases, women still made up fewer than one in five people employed in these professions in 1981.

Women also accounted for one-third of the total growth in the number of physicians and surgeons, the single, largest male-dominated professional group. As a result, the percentage of doctors who were women increased from 11% in 1971 to 17% in 1981.

On the other hand, women accounted for less than 10% of total employment growth in 9 of the 34 male-dominated professions during the 1971-1981 period. Women made up only 4% of the increase in the number of physicists, and just 8% of the increase in management occupations in engineering and the natural sciences. As well, about 8% of all employment growth in the various engineering professions in the 1971-1981 period was due to the increasing number of female engineers.

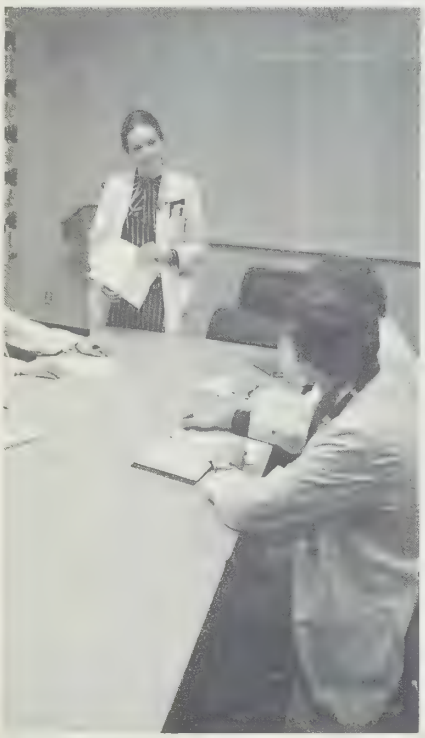
Because of these relatively slow growth rates, increases in the proportional representation of women in these professions were relatively small. In fact, the percentage of all physicists who were

women actually fell slightly, from 6% in 1971 to 5% in 1981. This, however, was the only male-dominated profession in which the proportional representation of women declined.

The proportion of engineers who were women did increase; however, in 1981, only 4% of engineers, compared with 1% in 1971, were women. At the same time, the proportion of female managers in engineering and the natural sciences increased from 3% in 1971 to 7% in 1981.

Younger women were responsible for much of the increase in female participation in male-dominated professions. For example, women aged 25-34 accounted for almost half of the overall increase in female employment in these professions during the 1971-1981 period. In this period, the number of women aged 25-34 in male-dominated professions increased 274%. This compared with increases of 128% for women in all other ages groups and 57% for men aged 25-34.

The relative growth in employment of younger women in male-dominated professions was particularly strong in the prestigious categories of doctors, judges and lawyers, and university professors. Over the 1971-1981 period, the increase in the number of 25- to 34-year-old women in these professions was actually slightly greater than that for men in the same age group. Yet, despite this growth, women still made up just 20% of all doctors, judges, lawyers, and university teachers in 1981, and only 27% of those aged 25-34.



Socio-Economic Characteristics of Women in Male-Dominated Professions

Many of the social and economic characteristics of women employed in male-dominated professions differ from those of both men working in these professions and women employed in other occupations.

Compared with women in other occupations, those in male-dominated professions had the most education, the highest employment rate, and the greatest income. For example, women aged 25 and over employed full-time in male-dominated professions earned an average of $24,100 in 1980, compared with $21,100 for other professional women and $13,400 for women in non-professional occupations.

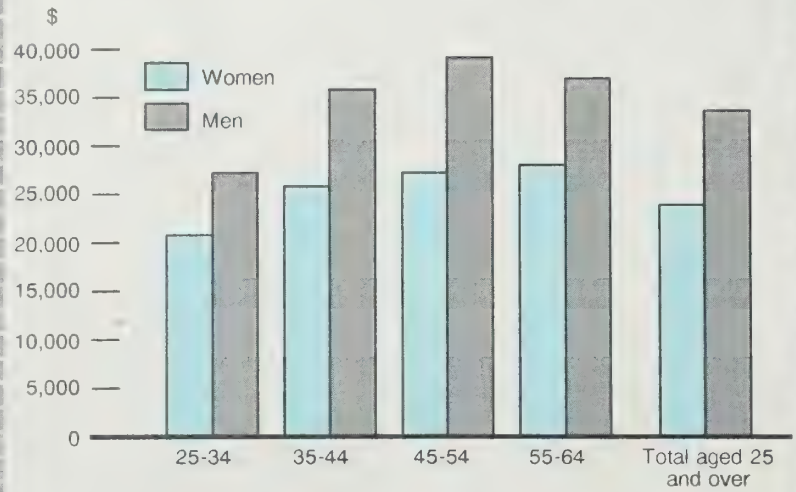
The average employment income of women in male-dominated professions, however, was considerably below that of

Selected Family Indicators, 1981

	Women			Men in male-dominated professions
	Male-dominated professions	Other professions	Non-professionals	
% never married				
- 25-44 years	24.8	19.6	13.1	—
- 45 years and over	22.0	15.4	7.4	—
% who were spouses in husband-wife families	61.9	69.1	71.4	80.0
% of spouses in husband-wife families with children at home	59.8	67.9	69.0	69.9
% employed full-time				
- spouses in husband-wife families with children under 19 at home	50.8	46.2	47.8	93.2
- spouses in husband-wife families without children	73.6	70.3	62.6	82.0

— not available
Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada.

Average 1980 Employment Income of Men and Women in Male-Dominated Professions, by Age



Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada.

men in these occupations. The average earnings of women working full-time in male-dominated occupations were just 71% of those of comparable men in 1980. Part of this difference is explained by the relatively high proportion of women in these professions who were in the younger age groups; these women tend to have less seniority and lower average employment income than the older age groups. Also, women aged 25-34 in these professions had average employment incomes that were only 77% those of comparable men.

The family characteristics of women in male-dominated professions also differ from those of other groups. Women in these professions were the least likely of any occupational category, either male or female, to be in a husband-wife family. They were also more likely than other women to have never married. Among employed women aged 45 and over, for example, 22% of those in male-dominated professions had never married, compared with 15% of those in other professions and just 7% of non-professionals. As well, women in male-dominated professions had fewer children at home than other women and were more likely than other women not to have had children at all.

The differences in family characteristics also extend to a comparison of women and men in male-dominated professions. Women in these occupations were much less likely than men to be a spouse in a husband-wife family. In 1981, 62% of women in these occupations were married, compared with 80% of men. As well, those women in male-dominated professions who were in husband-wife families were less likely than comparable men to have children: 60% of married women, compared with 70% of married men, had children at home. In addition, only 51% of professional women in husband-wife families with children had full-time jobs, compared with 93% of similar men.

These figures indicate that it is still far easier for men to maintain both a professional career and a family. For many women, unlike men, the decision to pursue such a career may mean limiting marital or parental options.

Katherine Marshall *is an analyst with the General Social Survey, Statistics Canada.*

- More detail on this topic is available in the report by the same author, *Who Are the Professional Women?*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-951.

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URBAN CANADA

by Mary Anne Burke



Definitions

Urban Area: An area having a population concentration of 1,000 or more and a population density of 400 or more per square kilometre.

Census Metropolitan Area (CMA): The main labour market of an urban area (the core) with a population of at least 100,000 based on the previous census.

Urban Province: A province with at least 50% of its population living in centres of at least 10,000 people.

Rural Area: All territory lying outside urban areas.

Rural Non-farm Population: All people living in rural areas who are not members of the households of farm operators living on their farms for any length of time during the 12-month period prior to the Census.

Transformation of Canada from a predominantly rural society to an urban one has occurred in a little over one hundred years. The pace of urbanization has varied by province, as have the factors at work behind the process. While the growth rate of the Canadian population is slowing, concentration in a few urban areas continues to increase.

Urban life is now reality for the majority of Canadians. In 1986, three-quarters of the population lived in urban areas, primarily in Ontario, Quebec and British Columbia. Increasingly, this means living in large metropolitan areas. In 1986, 60% of Canadians lived in one of 25 census metropolitan areas (CMAs), up from 54% five years earlier. In fact, Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver together accounted for 31% of the Canadian population in 1986, up from 29% in 1981.

Urban Growth

The rate of urban growth varied by census period, province, and by city size. With the exception of 1981, the percentage of the Canadian population classified as urban has increased with every census since 1871, when 18.3% of the population was considered urban. By 1931, 50% of the Canadian population was urban, and by 1976 the figure had climbed to 76.1%. By 1981, however, the urban population had dropped half a percentage point to 75.6%. By 1986, the urban component again increased to 76.3%.

The decline of the urban population recorded in the 1981 Census reflected a short-term increase in the proportion of the population residing in rural non-farm areas and commuting to large urban areas to work, as well as a blurring of urban/suburban/rural borders around metropolitan areas such as Toronto. The recent resurgence of urban growth may signal a movement back to urban core areas. Preliminary 1986 Census data indicate, for example, that since the previous census, population had increased in the urban cores of the CMAs, Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver.

By Province

Except for Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick, each province was



predominantly urban in 1986. That year, the urban proportion of the population stood at 82% in Ontario; 79% in British Columbia and Alberta; 78% in Quebec; 62% in Manitoba; 61% in Saskatchewan; 59% in Newfoundland; and 54% in Nova Scotia.

Prince Edward Island remained predominantly rural with only 38% of its population in urban areas. New Brunswick was the only other province in which a majority of the population did not live in urban areas. In 1986, only 49% of the population of New Brunswick was urban; this was down from 57% in 1971.

Urbanization was most rapid in British Columbia, Ontario, Quebec and Alberta. Ontario and British Columbia met the urban criteria in 1911, Quebec in 1921, and Alberta 1956. By 1971, all the provinces except Prince Edward Island were more than 50% urban, with Ontario and Quebec as high as 80%, and British Columbia, 75%.

By City Size

The average growth rate for all urban areas has slowed considerably since 1971. In part, this reflects the overall decline in Canada's population growth. For the 1981-1986 period, the national growth rate was 4.2%, the lowest five-year growth rate in the last 25 years. As well, the urban population is now so large that even substantial absolute numbers of migrants seem small in comparison with the population already

in urban areas. From 1981 to 1986, urban areas 10,000 and over had an average growth rate of 6.0% compared with 12.2% during the 1966-1971 period. The average growth of CMAs was 5.9% for the 1981-1986 period, far below the 27.6% increase from 1966 to 1971. The comparable figures for CMAs of 500,000 population and over were 6.2% for the period 1981-1986 and 19.2% for the earlier period.

Since CMAs were first defined, their number has increased from 15 in 1951 to 25 in 1986. CMAs have grown in size at a faster rate than urban areas under 100,000 population. In fact, since 1951, CMAs have accounted for 77% of Canada's total population growth.

During the 1981-1986 period, the three fastest growing CMAs were Saskatoon (which increased by 14.6% or 46,455 people), Ottawa–Hull (10.1% or 101,385), and Toronto (9.5% or 428,221). Calgary and Edmonton, the fastest growing CMAs during the previous five years, had much lower percentage increases during the 1981-1986 period, reflecting a downturn in local economic conditions (see accompanying article on Calgary). Calgary's population increased 7.2% (78,583) over the period 1981-1986 compared with 25.7% for 1976-1981. Over the same period, Edmonton's population growth rate fell to 6.0% (128,408) from 18.1%. During the 1981-1986 period, Montreal's population grew 2.1% (269,880), up from 0.9%, and Vancouver's by 8.9% (112,546), up from 8.7%. Sudbury was the only CMA to lose population, declining by 4.6% (1,046) between 1981 and 1986. Movement out of Sudbury had started during the 1971-1976 period, when the population fell 0.4%.

During the years 1981 to 1986, the CMAs Montreal, Toronto and Vancouver accounted for 69% of urban growth in Canada, up from 60% during the period 1966-1971. Calgary and Edmonton accounted for 22.5% of urban growth from 1981-1986.

Population Movement Key to Urban Growth

Urban growth in Canada has resulted from a combination of natural increase, internal migration, and immigration from outside the country. With the decline of fertility rates, internal migration and immigration have become increasingly more important factors in urban growth.

In general, in the earlier decades of this century, the main flow of internal migration was from rural to urban areas. However, as the size of the rural farm population decreased to current levels, urban-bound migrants tended to be rural non-farm residents, or people moving from one urban area to a larger one.

Since the 1950s, the flow tended to be from smaller urban areas to large metropolitan areas. During the period 1956-1961, 75% of all urban migrants moved to another urban area, less than 20% moved to a rural non-farm area, and only 4% moved to a rural area. This pattern remained basically the same for the period 1976-1981.

During the period 1956-1961, 55% of rural migrants moved to urban areas, increasing to 70% for the period 1976-1981.

For the 1976-1981 period, CMAs were points of origin or destination for

Percentage of Urban Population, by Province, 1851-1986

	1851	1861	1871	1881	1891	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971	1981	1986
								%							
Nfld.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	43	51	57	59	59
P.E.I.	-	9	9	11	13	15	16	19	20	22	25	32	38	37	38
N.S.	8	8	8	15	19	28	37	45	47	52	55	54	57	55	54
N.B.	14	13	18	18	20	23	27	35	35	39	43	47	57	51	50
Que.	15	17	20	24	29	36	45	52	59	61	67	74	81	78	78
Ont.	14	19	21	27	35	40	50	59	63	68	73	77	82	82	82
Man.	-	-	-	15	24	25	39	42	45	46	56	64	70	71	62
Sask.	-	-	-	-	-	6	16	17	20	21	30	43	53	58	61
Alta.	-	-	-	-	-	16	29	31	32	32	48	63	74	77	79
B.C.	-	-	9	18	43	46	51	51	62	64	69	73	76	78	79
Canada	13	14	18	23	30	35	42	47	53	56	62	70	76	76	76

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Percentage of Canadian Population in Census Metropolitan Areas, 1951-1986

	1951	1956	1961	1966	1971	1976	1981	1986
				%				
Toronto	9.0	9.8	10.5	11.4	12.3	12.2	12.4	13.5
Montreal	11.0	11.4	12.2	12.9	12.7	12.2	11.6	11.5
Vancouver	4.2	4.3	4.5	4.7	5.0	5.1	5.2	5.5
Ottawa-Hull	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	3.2
Edmonton	1.4	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.7	3.1
Calgary	1.0	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.7
Winnipeg	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.5
Quebec	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4
Hamilton	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.2
St. Catharines-Niagara	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.1	1.4
London	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	0.1	1.2	1.4
Kitchener	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2
Halifax	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.2
Victoria	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0
Windsor	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0
Oshawa	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.8
Saskatoon	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8
Regina	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
St. John's	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Chicoutimi-Jonquiere	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6
Sudbury	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Sherbrooke	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.5
Trois-Rivieres	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.5
Thunder Bay	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.5	0.5
Saint John	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Total - CMAs	**45.7**	**48.2**	**50.9**	**53.4**	**55.1**	**54.7**	**54.4**	**59.8**

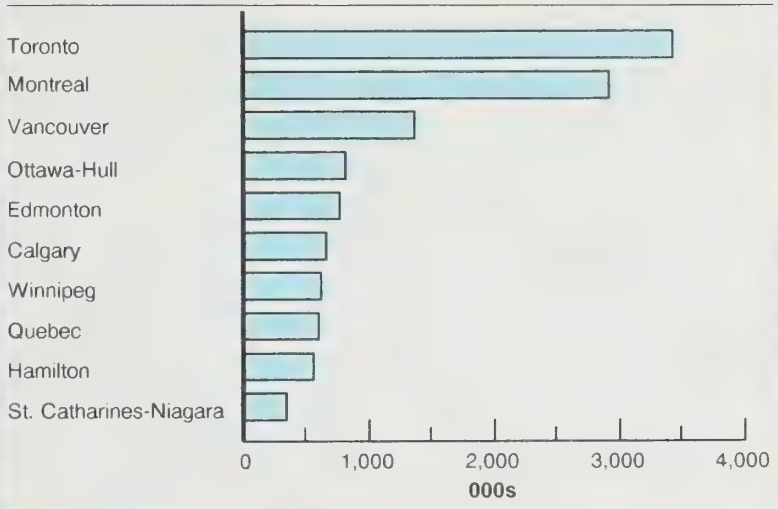
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

more than 2.5 million migrants, according to a recent study[1]. This movement of people profoundly affects the nature of Canadian metropolitan areas. Migration was clearly the major contributor to the growth of Calgary and Edmonton. Over the past thirty years, these two CMAs had annual growth rates of 4% to 5%, despite rates of natural increase of no more than 2% per year.

Other fast-growing CMAs like Saskatoon, Kitchener, Toronto, Regina, Ottawa–Hull, Vancouver, and Victoria also had positive net migration. In CMAs with below-average or negative growth rates during the 1976-1981 period — Chicoutimi–Jonquière, St. Catherines–Niagara, Saint John, Thunder Bay, Windsor, Winnipeg, and Montreal — net migration was negligible or negative.

Immigration can moderate the effects of internal migration. For example, without the addition of 64,000 immigrants between 1976 and 1981, Montreal's net out-migration would have been 105,000 instead of 41,000. In Toronto, the arrival of 153,000 immigrants during this period more than offset the loss of 9,000 residents to other parts of Canada and contributed to the overall growth of the CMA.

Population of the 10 Largest Census Metropolitan Areas in Canada, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Percentage Population Change of Census Metropolitan Areas, 1951-1986

	1951-1956	1956-1961	1961-1966	1966-1971	1971-1976	1976-1981	1981-1986
Toronto	21.1	21.4	18.3	14.8	7.7	7.0	9.5
Montreal	18.6	20.8	15.4	6.7	2.7	0.9	2.1
Vancouver	18.3	18.8	12.9	16.0	7.8	8.7	8.9
Ottawa-Hull	18.1	24.3	15.0	13.9	11.8	3.6	10.1
Edmonton	44.1	32.5	18.8	16.5	11.7	18.1	6.0
Calgary	41.2	38.8	18.4	22.0	16.5	25.7	7.2
Winnipeg	15.5	15.4	6.7	6.2	5.2	1.1	5.6
Quebec	12.8	14.7	15.6	10.0	8.1	6.3	3.3
Hamilton	20.6	16.8	13.6	9.0	5.2	2.4	2.8
St. Catharines-Niagara	26.3	12.4	14.9	6.3	5.6	0.8	0.2
London	19.7	17.3	14.4	12.7	6.9	4.9	4.7
Kitchener	19.7	20.3	24.1	18.0	14.1	5.7	8.1
Halifax	22.6	12.0	7.7	6.1	7.0	3.6	6.6
Victoria	18.2	15.1	12.5	11.7	11.0	7.0	5.8
Windsor	13.5	4.0	9.4	8.5	-0.5	-0.6	1.2
Oshawa	25.1	28.8	23.8	13.0	12.4	14.1	9.2
Saskatoon	36.7	31.1	23.7	9.1	5.8	15.3	14.6
Regina	25.8	24.9	16.8	6.3	7.4	8.7	7.7
St. John's	15.3	14.7	10.3	12.1	8.8	6.5	4.6
Chicoutimi-Jonquiere	19.6	15.4	3.5	0.6	1.8	5.1	0.2
Sudbury	32.6	13.0	5.6	13.7	-0.4	-4.5	-4.6
Sherbrooke	13.4	13.6	13.4	6.1	7.1	6.1	3.8
Trois-Rivieres	14.4	10.8	6.9	2.5	0.6	5.1	2.8
Thunder Bay	17.3	16.6	6.6	3.8	4.0	1.8	0.2
Saint John	9.8	11.1	5.8	2.4	5.8	0.9	0.2

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Heartland/Hinterland

Migration and immigration trends have reinforced and helped shape the disparate distribution of population in Canada. A Canadian heartland and hinterland have developed, reflecting the very uneven distribution of urban areas. Ontario, Quebec and the far western provinces dominate the other regions of Canada by sheer volume of population, number of CMAs, CMAs over 500,000, and in turn, economically.

In 1986, almost 70% of Canada's 165 urban areas with more than 10,000 residents were in Ontario, Quebec, and British Columbia. Ontario accounted for 30% of the total, Quebec for 22%, and British Columbia for 17%. The next largest concentrations of urban areas with at least 10,000 population were in Alberta (8%) and Saskatchewan (6%). The remainder were distributed relatively evenly among the other provinces.

The population is further concentrated in several large CMAs. Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver accounted for 31% of the Canadian population in 1986. In fact, most of the population is located in a corridor from Windsor to Quebec City. This area represents 5% of Canada's land surface and, in 1986, accounted for two-thirds of the Canadian population. The situation is similar in British Columbia, where most of the population is concentrated in and around Vancouver in the Fraser River Valley.

[1] Shaw, R. Paul, *Intermetropolitan Migration in Canada: Changing Determinants Over Three Decades*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-504.

Immigration has reinforced the existing distribution of the urban population. Immigrants tend to go to Ontario, Quebec, British Columbia and Alberta. In 1986, half of all immigrants to Canada went to Ontario; 19% to Quebec; 13% to British Columbia; 10% to Alberta; 4% to Manitoba; 2% to Saskatchewan; and 2% to the Atlantic region. Most immigrants settle in large metropolitan areas. In 1986, Toronto received 30% (29,000) of the total; Montreal, 17% (17,000); Vancouver, 9% (8,700); Calgary, 4% (4,000); Edmonton, 4% (3,800); Winnipeg, 3% (3,300); and Ottawa–Hull, 3% (3,400).

Growth Rate by Size of Urban Area, 1951-1986

	Urban area 10,000+ and over	CMAs 100,000+ and over	CMAs 500,000+ and over
1951-1956	12.6	21.6	18.5
1956-1961	12.9	19.4	9.2
1961-1966	13.6	14.0	16.1
1966-1971	12.2	27.6	19.2
1971-1976	0.9	8.5	6.1
1976-1981	2.8	7.7	5.0
1981-1986	6.0	5.9	6.2

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Urban Issues

Present-day urban society in Canada is a reflection of past and present individual choices and policy decisions concerning the economy, technology, the environment, and population. For example, early decisions concerning investments in the exploitation of Canada's natural resources — fur, lumber, wheat, and minerals — influenced population growth, movement and distribution. Likewise, decisions concerning the development of technology (for example, the decisions made by entrepreneurs to invest in the development of the railways, and along specific routes) also contributed to current urban patterns. Decisions to develop and use the Great Lake Waterway System as a major transportation route have also had an impact on the configuration of present-day urban Canada. More recently, the point system, adopted to select immigrants to Canada, favours applicants with skills suited to a high-tech, urban environment, rather than those with skills geared to a rural environment.

Differences in the timing and nature of economic developments and policies



Distribution of Urban Areas by Province, 1986

	Number of urban areas		% distribution of urban areas of 10,000 or more population
	1,000 or more population	10,000 or more population	
Newfoundland	57	7	4.2
Prince Edward Island	7	2	1.2
Nova Scotia	39	7	4.2
New Brunswick	39	6	3.6
Quebec	241	36	21.8
Ontario	250	49	29.7
Manitoba	41	5	3.0
Saskatchewan	68	10	6.1
Alberta	99	13	7.9
British Columbia	92	28	16.9
Northwest Territories	1	1	0.6
Yukon	6	1	0.6
Total	940	165	100.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Migration To and From Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs), 1966-1971 and 1976-1981

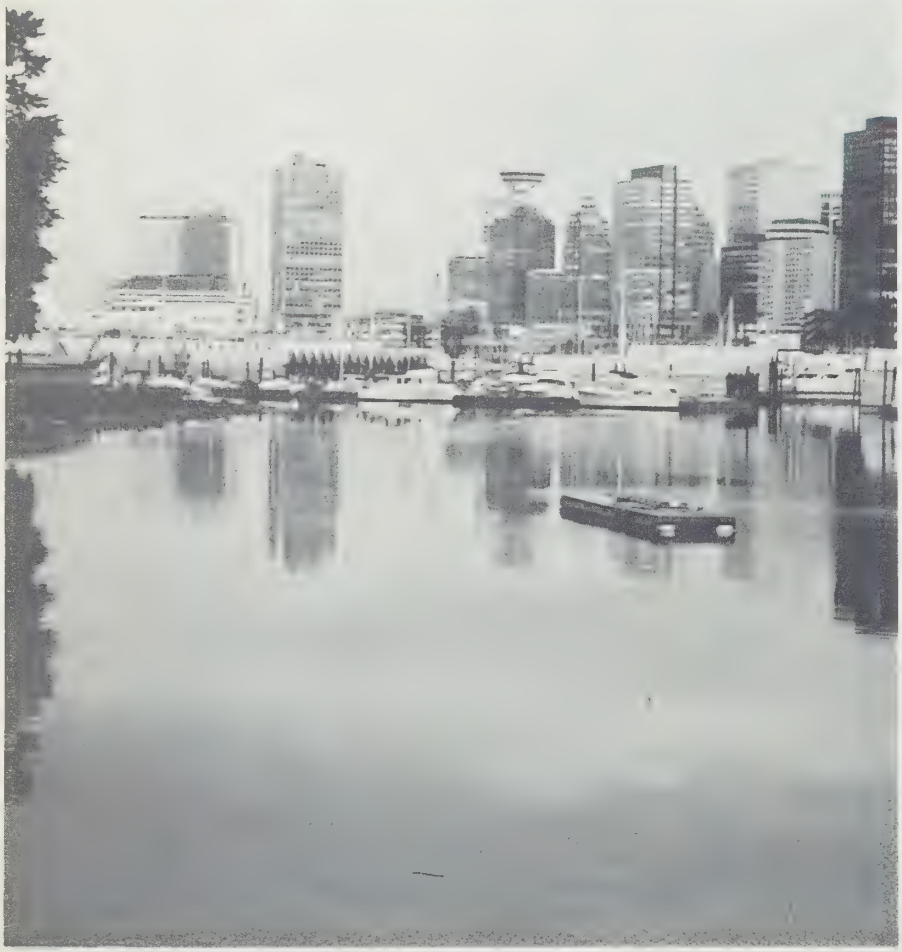
		Other CMAs			Non-metropolitan areas			Immi-gration	Total net internal migration plus immi-gration
		In	Out	Net	In	Out	Net		
Calgary	1966-71	36,110	26,026	10,085	42,300	26,620	15,680	24,040	49,805
	1976-81	88,735	33,710	55,025	69,175	58,640	10,535	30,440	96,000
Chicoutimi-Jonquiere	1966-71	3,615	8,505	-4,890	6,920	7,215	-295	1,340	-3,845
	1976-81	3,335	6,430	-3,095	6,245	5,960	285	445	-2,365
Edmonton	1966-71	28,430	31,900	-3,470	52,020	34,165	17,885	21,510	35,895
	1976-81	63,085	35,760	27,325	72,390	65,930	6,460	27,735	61,520
Halifax	1966-71	10,755	15,785	-5,030	21,580	20,530	1,320	6,105	1,205
	1976-81	15,125	19,510	-4,385	24,455	24,720	-265	3,865	-785
Hamilton	1966-71	25,870	21,205	4,665	19,885	18,190	1,695	26,530	32,890
	1976-81	31,975	29,660	2,315	18,370	23,810	-4,810	10,730	8,235
Kitchener-Waterloo	1966-71	15,210	10,880	4,330	17,680	14,390	3,290	15,125	22,745
	1976-81	17,525	18,885	-1,330	18,675	18,730	-55	6,850	5,465
London	1966-71	21,565	17,060	4,505	21,000	18,010	2,990	15,055	22,550
	1976-81	20,340	23,525	-3,185	23,755	22,380	1,375	5,860	4,050
Montreal	1966-71	44,925	78,875	-33,950	115,465	88,780	26,685	115,345	108,080
	1976-81	41,925	120,115	-78,190	97,420	124,830	-27,410	64,495	-41,105
Ottawa-Hull	1966-71	41,480	30,060	11,420	44,080	27,580	16,500	27,605	55,525
	1976-81	58,380	66,530	-8,150	41,030	40,505	525	18,740	11,115
Quebec City	1966-71	15,265	17,145	-1,880	36,885	16,510	20,375	5,930	24,425
	1976-81	15,035	23,095	-8,060	32,430	25,755	6,675	4,425	3,040
Regina	1966-71	7,000	16,005	-9,005	18,465	11,590	6,875	3,080	950
	1976-81	10,630	11,755	-1,125	17,325	14,430	2,895	3,255	5,025
St. Catharines-Niagara	1966-71	12,330	14,700	-2,370	10,915	10,145	770	10,825	9,225
	1976-81	14,520	17,400	-2,880	10,015	12,290	-2,275	4,560	-595
St. John's	1966-71	2,730	6,595	-3,865	11,705	6,390	5,315	1,965	3,415
	1976-81	4,575	7,395	-2,820	9,640	9,820	-180	1,360	-1,640
Saint John	1966-71	3,220	3,775	-555	6,630	6,670	-40	1,400	805
	1976-81	4,405	5,020	-975	7,475	9,180	-1,705	1,095	-1,585
Saskatoon	1966-71	6,650	15,010	-8,360	20,590	13,060	7,530	3,370	2,540
	1976-81	12,110	11,180	930	23,005	16,180	6,825	3,765	11,520
Sudbury	1966-71	7,810	8,755	-965	15,015	10,375	4,640	4,410	8,085
	1976-81	4,070	10,990	-6,926	8,215	13,975	-5,760	850	-11,830
Thunder Bay	1966-71	4,605	5,650	-1,585	6,555	4,815	1,740	2,955	-370
	1976-81	4,685	7,260	-2,565	7,715	6,000	1,715	1,545	695
Toronto	1966-71	95,330	84,770	10,770	90,200	120,885	-30,685	262,280	242,280
	1976-81	127,435	109,095	18,340	96,350	123,660	-27,310	152,890	143,920
Vancouver	1966-71	69,220	28,625	40,595	62,335	56,475	5,860	71,670	118,125
	1976-81	78,575	40,245	38,330	65,320	85,365	-20,045	61,250	79,535
Victoria	1966-71	19,760	11,280	8,480	15,890	11,700	4,190	8,570	21,240
	1976-81	25,080	16,185	8,895	20,115	20,415	-300	6,560	15,155
Windsor	1966-71	9,895	10,390	-495	8,705	9,140	-435	13,250	12,320
	1976-81	7,060	14,250	-7,190	7,565	12,630	-5,065	5,780	-6,475
Winnipeg	1966-71	19,830	28,070	-18,260	38,760	29,380	9,380	23,780	14,920
	1976-81	22,005	42,295	-20,290	35,210	37,500	-2,290	19,135	-3,445

Source: Shaw, R. Paul, *Intermetropolitan Migration in Canada, Changing Determinants over Three Decades*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-504.

Distribution of Immigrants to Canada, by Province and Selected Metropolitan Areas, 1981-1986

	1981		1982		1983		1984		1985		1986[1]	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Province												
Newfoundland	480	0.4	406	0.3	275	0.3	299	0.3	325	0.4	266	0.3
Prince Edward Island	126	0.1	165	0.1	105	0.1	109	0.1	113	0.1	164	0.2
Nova Scotia	1,403	1.1	1,254	1.0	833	0.9	1,034	1.2	974	1.2	1,082	1.1
New Brunswick	988	0.8	751	0.6	554	0.6	600	0.7	609	0.7	619	0.6
Quebec	21,118	16.4	21,331	17.6	16,374	18.4	14,641	16.6	14,884	17.7	18,826	19.3
Ontario	54,890	42.7	53,031	43.8	40,036	44.9	41,527	47.1	40,730	48.3	48,340	50.0
Manitoba	5,359	4.2	4,931	4.1	3,978	4.5	3,903	4.4	3,415	4.1	3,685	3.8
Saskatchewan	2,401	1.9	2,125	1.8	1,735	2.0	2,150	2.4	1,905	2.3	1,824	1.9
Alberta	19,294	1.5	17,948	14.8	10,688	12.0	10,670	12.1	9,001	10.7	9,478	9.7
British Columbia	22,007	17.0	18,996	15.7	14,447	16.2	13,190	15.0	12,239	14.5	12,227	12.5
Yukon	119	0.1	69	0.1	73	0.1	41	0.1	36	0.1	44	0.1
Northwest Territories	82	0.1	111	0.1	59	0.1	75	0.1	71	0.1	62	0.1
Total	**128,618**	**100.0**	**121,147**	**100.0**	**89,157**	**100.0**	**88,239**	**100.0**	**84,302**	**100.0**	**97,474**	**100.0**
Cities												
Toronto	29,338	22.8	28,163	23.3	22,216	24.9	27,197	30.8	23,622	28.0	28,603	29.3
Montreal	16,352	12.7	16,341	13.5	13,052	14.6	11,883	13.5	12,862	15.3	16,647	17.1
Vancouver	14,810	11.5	12,526	10.3	10,015	11.2	9,385	10.6	8,935	10.6	8,701	8.9
Ottawa-Hull	3,208	2.5	3,243	2.7	2,508	2.8	3,126	3.5	3,316	3.9	3,394	3.5
Edmonton	7,308	5.7	7,159	5.9	4,493	5.0	4,276	4.9	3,694	4.4	3,801	3.9
Calgary	8,389	6.5	7,694	6.4	4,360	4.9	4,540	5.2	3,669	4.4	4,071	4.2
Winnipeg	4,104	3.2	3,891	3.2	3,318	3.7	3,210	3.6	2,947	3.5	3,338	3.4

[1] Preliminary data.
Source: Department of Employment and Immigration, *Landed Immigrants: CLPR by Selected Areas of Destination and Province, 1981-1986*



cross the regions of the country have profoundly affected the economic potential of these regions and subsequent policy development. Regional disparities in income and economic opportunities, and the concentration of population in a few metropolitan centres have been some of the outcomes of these differences.

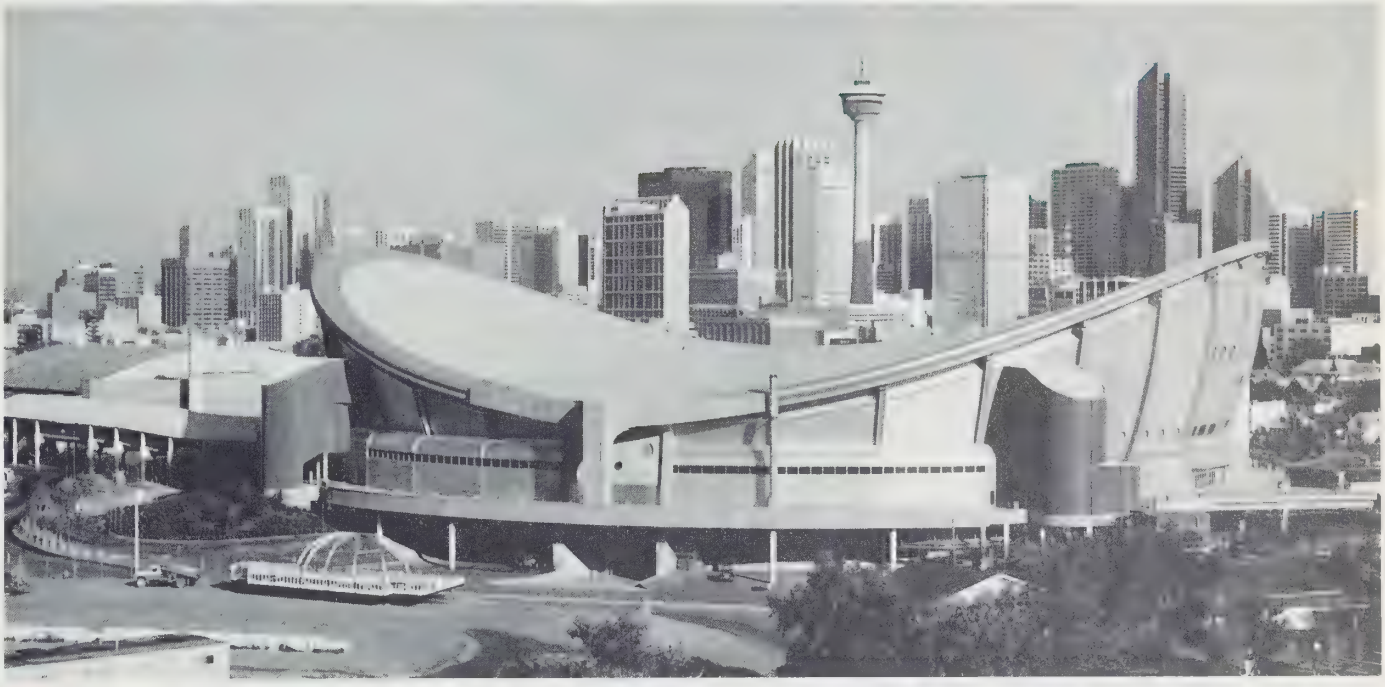
While urbanization has benefitted Canadian society in many ways, both urban growth and the concentration of the population in a handful of large metropolitan areas have not been without social costs. Rural depopulation and breakdown of local communities, escalating land and housing costs, fiscal burdens on regional governments, environmental pollution and decay, and traffic congestion, for example, have all accompanied the development of an urban society.

Awareness of the growth, movement and distribution of today's urban society will aid in the understanding of the role policy decisions play in the shaping of Canadian society.

Mary Anne Burke *is Associate Editor of* Canadian Social Trends.

CALGARY: A STATISTICAL PROFILE

by Nat Stone



The long-term trend in Canada has been toward greater urbanization, but growth rates of different Census Metropolitan Areas (CMAs) have varied widely since 1971. Some experienced rapid growth; others increased, but at a much slower rate; still others have actually declined. Calgary is an example of a Census Metropolitan Area where growth has been particularly rapid.

Long famous as the home of the Stampede and the headquarters of Canada's oil and natural gas industry, Calgary is about to gain further world attention as the site of the 1988 Winter Olympics.

A Growing Population

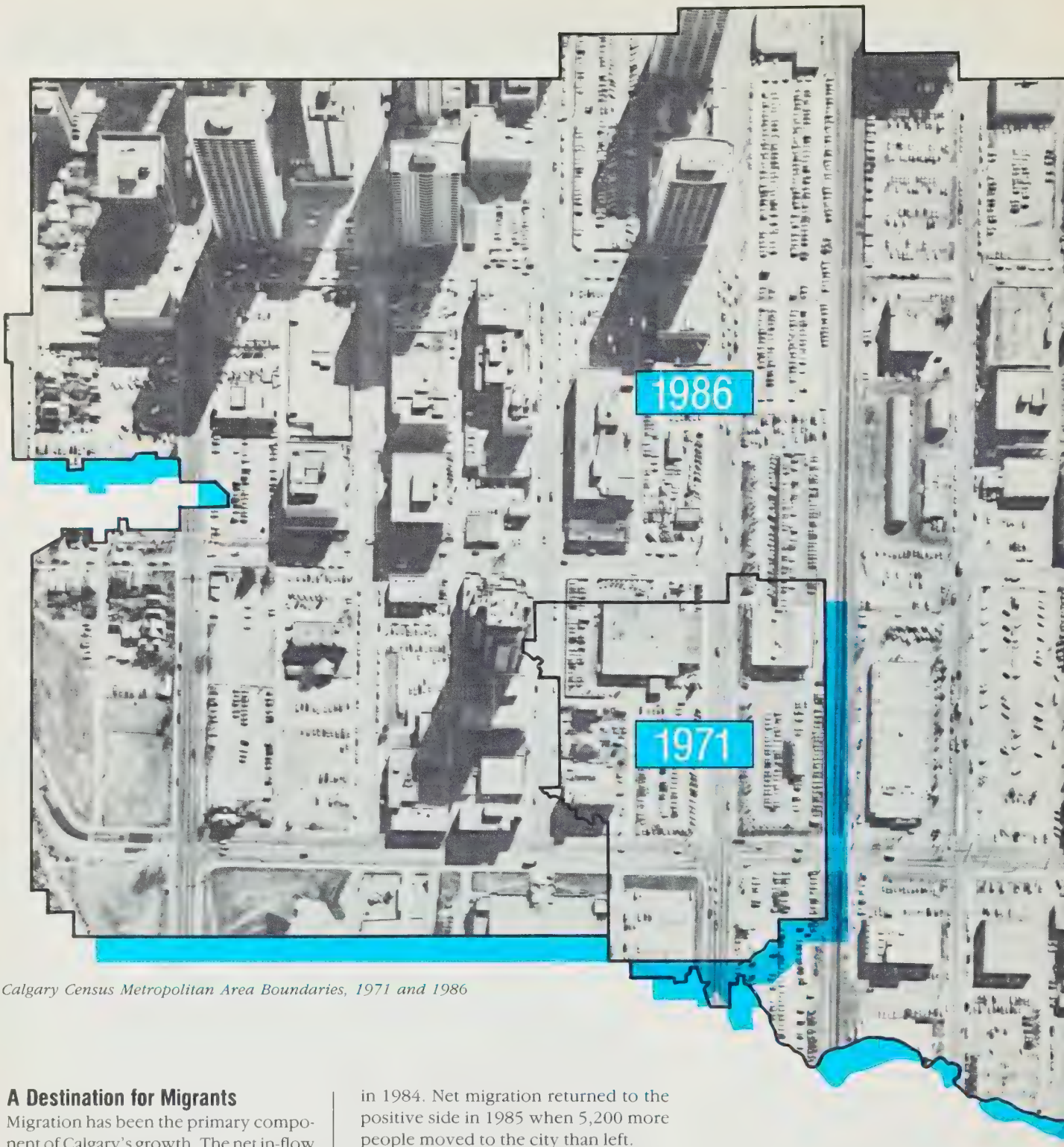
In 1986, Calgary was Canada's sixth largest Census Metropolitan Area; in 1971, it had ranked ninth. During the 1971-1986 period, the population of Calgary grew from 403,300 to 671,300, a 66% increase[1]. In the same period, Edmonton grew 58%, while the two largest Census Metropolitan Areas, Toronto and Montreal, increased 30% and 6%, respectively. The total population of Canada rose 17% in this period.

The overall increase in Calgary's population since 1971 masks several dramatic fluctuations in the rate of growth during this period; these were associated with the ups and downs of the oil and gas industry. In fact, the price of crude oil has been the most important factor in the city's growth and economic health. When oil prices skyrocketed in the 1970s, for example, so did the growth rate of Calgary's population, but as prices slumped in the 1980s, the rate of increase dropped precipitously.

During the late 1970s, when the oil and gas industry was booming, Calgary grew faster than any other metropolitan area in Canada. Between 1976 and 1981, Calgary's population rose 26%, from 469,900 to 592,700. Edmonton also grew at a substantial rate (18%), but Toronto increased just 7%, and Montreal only 1% in this period. The population of Canada as a whole rose 6%.

Population growth in Calgary slowed in the 1980s after the downturn in the oil and gas industry. Between 1981 and 1986, the population increased, but by just 7%. Although this was still above the national growth rate of 4%, Calgary fell to eighth place among Census Metropolitan Areas in terms of population growth during this period.

[1] Percentage changes are calculated using the boundaries at the end of the period.



Calgary Census Metropolitan Area Boundaries, 1971 and 1986

A Destination for Migrants

Migration has been the primary component of Calgary's growth. The net in-flow of migrants was particularly heavy during the late 1970s and early 1980s. Between 1976 and 1981, for example, almost three-quarters of the population increase was attributable to migration. In each of the three years from 1979 to 1981, net migration to Calgary totalled more than 20,000.

This massive influx ended in 1982. After a net gain of almost 24,000 migrants in 1981, Calgary suffered net losses of 6,300 in 1982, 12,300 in 1983, and 4,600 in 1984. Net migration returned to the positive side in 1985 when 5,200 more people moved to the city than left.

A Young City

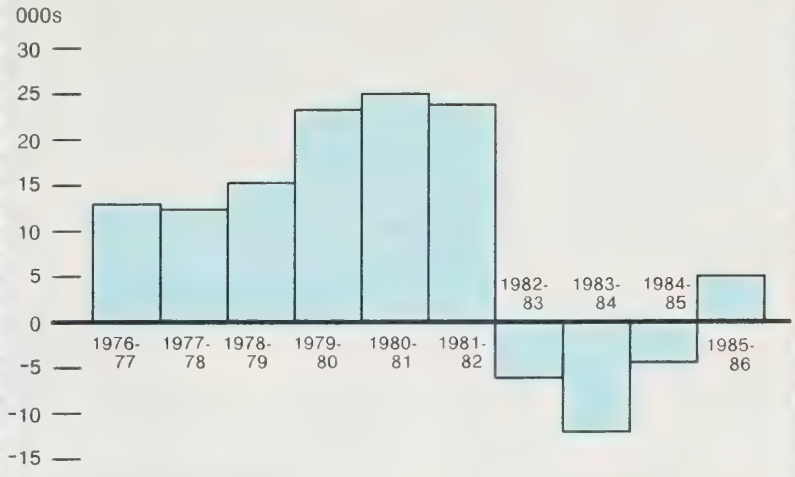
Calgary has a relatively high concentration of young adults. In 1986, 23% of residents were aged 25-34, compared with 18% for Canada. Conversely, the proportion of elderly people was much lower in Calgary than in Canada as a whole. In 1986, only 7% of the population of Calgary, as opposed to 11% of all Canadians, were aged 65 and over. The percentage of Calgary residents under age 25 (39%) was slightly above the national figure (38%).

Family Patterns

The high proportion of young adults in Calgary is reflected in the marital status and family characteristics of the city's inhabitants. While the proportions of the population aged 15 and over who were married or single were similar to those for Canada as a whole in 1986, a somewhat

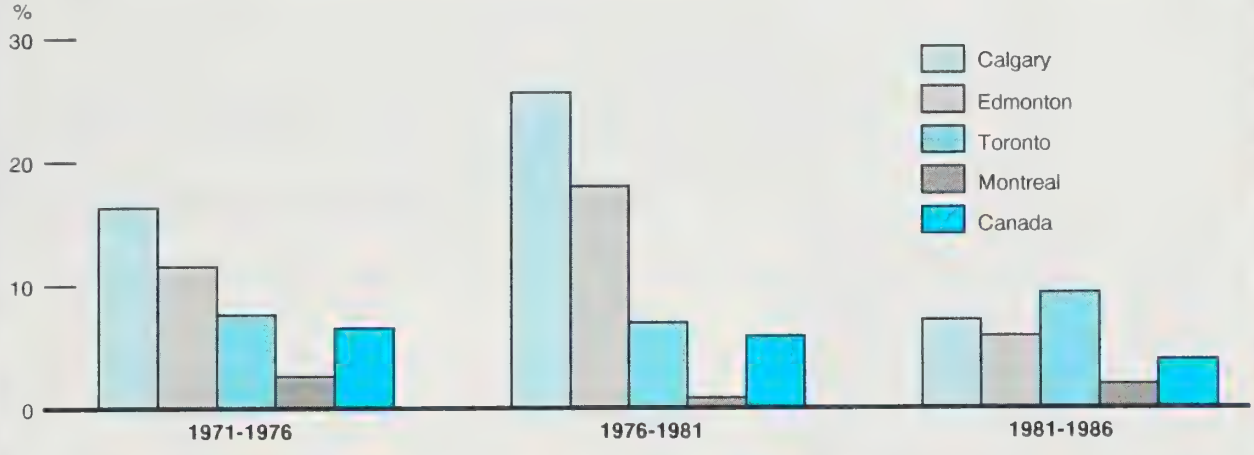


Net Migration, Calgary CMA, 1976-77 to 1985-86



Source: Statistics Canada, Small Area and Administrative Data Division, unpublished data.

Five-Year[1] Population Growth Rates, Selected Census Metropolitan Areas, 1971-1986



[1] For each period, percentage change is calculated using boundaries at the end of the period.
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

higher proportion of the adult population in Calgary was divorced, and a smaller percentage was widowed. The proportion of Calgarians living alone was also slightly above the level for all Canada. As well, families in Calgary tended to have younger children than was the case for Canada overall.

Language, Ethnicity and Religion[2]

English was the mother tongue of 82% of Calgary's population in 1986; another 3% had learned both English and another language simultaneously. Chinese, German and French were each the mother tongue of about 2% of the population.

As the figures on language suggest, Calgary's ethnic composition was

► *Continued page 23*

[2] Mother tongue data are from the 1986 Census; ethnicity and religion data are available only from the 1981 Census.

The Early Development of Calgary

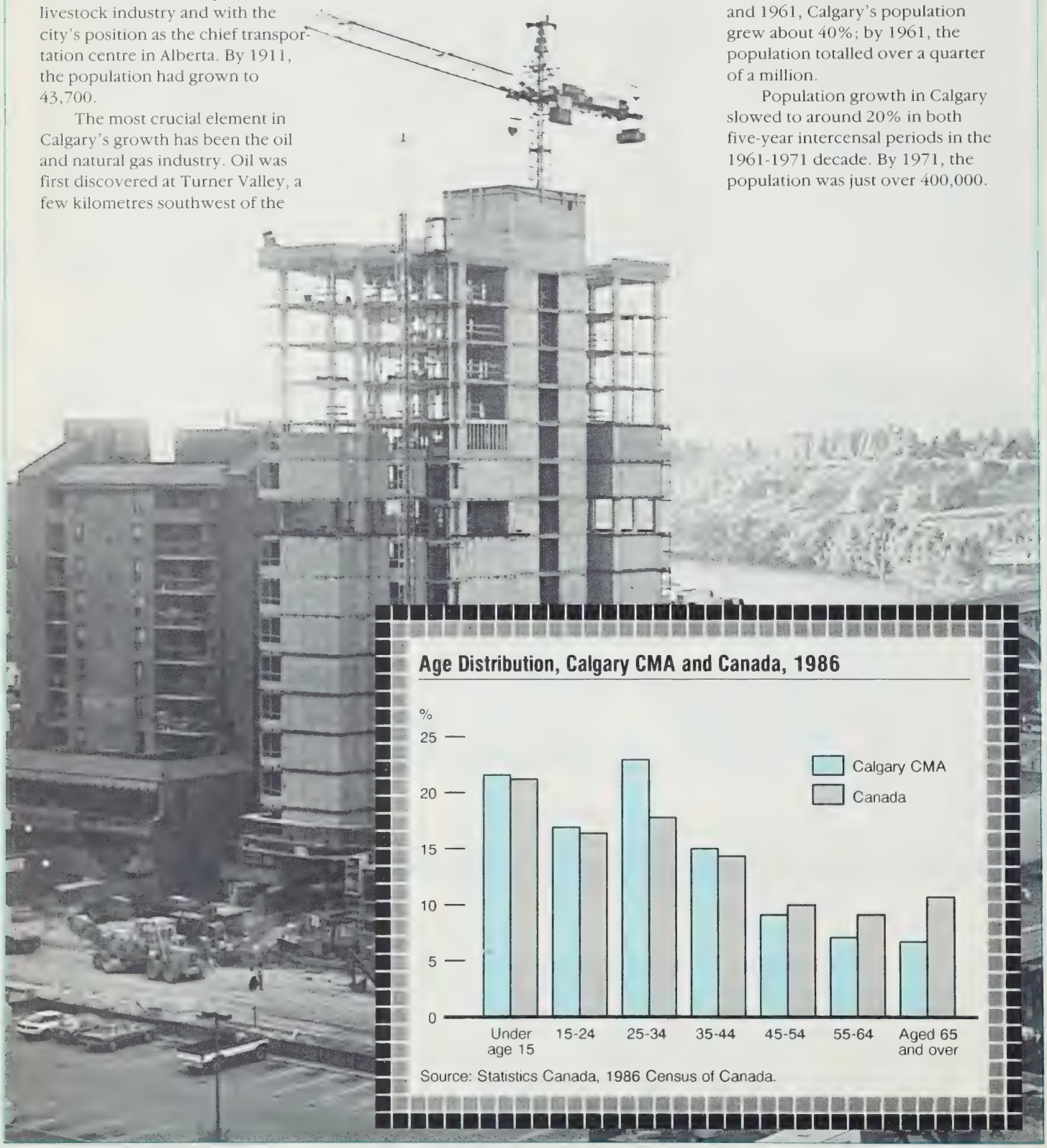
Calgary was originally established as a North-West Mounted Police post in 1875; it was incorporated as a town in 1884, and as a city in 1893. The 1891 Census, the first to include Calgary, counted 4,000 residents.

Calgary's early growth was associated with development of the livestock industry and with the city's position as the chief transportation centre in Alberta. By 1911, the population had grown to 43,700.

The most crucial element in Calgary's growth has been the oil and natural gas industry. Oil was first discovered at Turner Valley, a few kilometres southwest of the city, in 1914. Alberta's first oil refinery opened in Calgary in 1923. Subsequent discoveries at Turner Valley in 1924 and 1936, and especially the major find at Leduc in 1947, further established Calgary as the industry's administrative centre in Canada.

Growth in Calgary really took off after the Second World War. The oil industry attracted migrants in record numbers. Moreover, this was the baby-boom era when the annual number of births was climbing, not only in Calgary, but also in Canada generally. In both five-year intercensal periods between 1951 and 1961, Calgary's population grew about 40%; by 1961, the population totalled over a quarter of a million.

Population growth in Calgary slowed to around 20% in both five-year intercensal periods in the 1961-1971 decade. By 1971, the population was just over 400,000.



Age Distribution, Calgary CMA and Canada, 1986

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

predominantly Anglo-Saxon. In 1981, 49% of the population claimed British roots, while 9% reported a combination of British and some other ethnic origin. The next largest ethnic groups were German (8%) and French (4%).

More than half of Calgary's population (55%) indicated religious affiliation with a Protestant denomination in 1981; another quarter were Roman Catholics. The proportion claiming no religious preference was 14%, double the percentage for all Canada.

Educational Attainment High

The population of Calgary is relatively well-educated. In 1981, 14% of the population aged 15 and over not attending school full-time were university graduates; the corresponding percentage for Canada was 8%. On the other hand, just 9% of adults in Calgary had less than a Grade 9 education, compared with 22% for Canada.

An Uncertain Labour Market

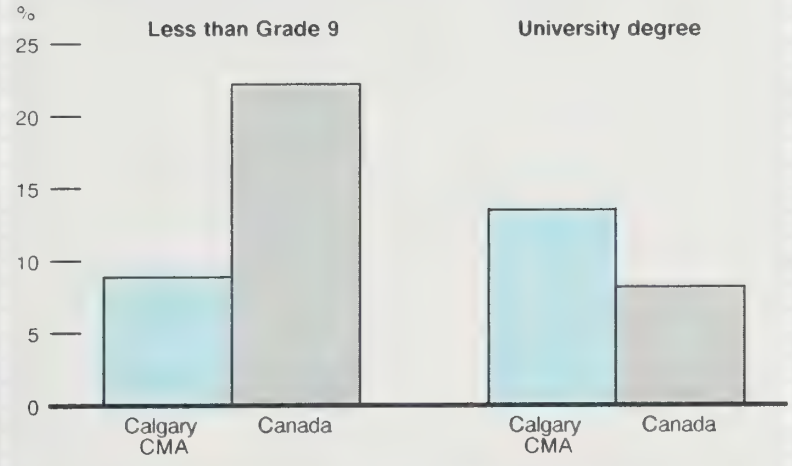
Labour force participation has grown significantly in Calgary since the mid-1970s. In 1986, 76% of the eligible population in Calgary was in the labour force, up from 67% in 1975. By comparison, the labour force participation rate for Canada as a whole rose from 61% to 66% during the same period.

Labour force participation in Calgary has been the highest of any Census Metropolitan Area since the late 1970s. The second highest participation rate in 1986 was 73% in Oshawa.

Unemployment has increased substantially in Calgary since the beginning of the economic recession in the early 1980s. In 1980, Calgary's unemployment rate was 3.6%, less than half the national level of 7.5%. But in both 1983 and 1984, over 12% of the city's labour force was unemployed; this was higher than the national rate. By 1986, Calgary's unemployment rate had fallen to 9.9%, though this was still slightly above the national rate of 9.6%.

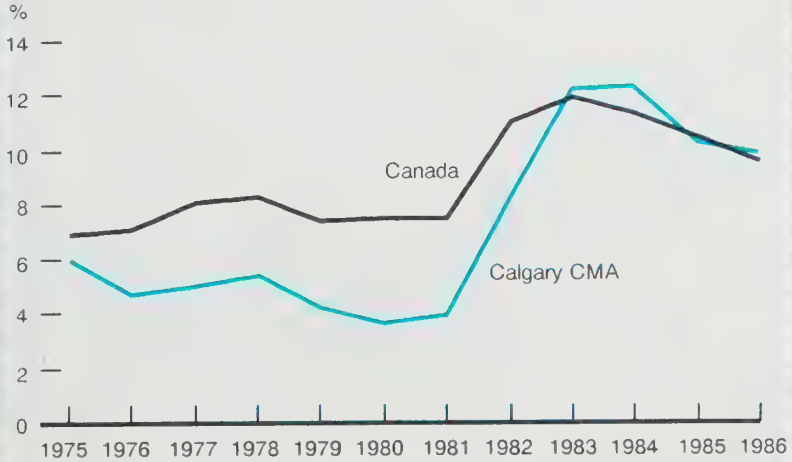
Reflecting its position as the administrative centre of Canada's oil and gas industry, a relatively high proportion of the workforce in Calgary is engaged in managerial and administrative occupations, and in occupations related to the natural sciences, engineering and mathematics. In 1981, those employed in management and administration made up 12% of Calgary's labour force, compared with 9% for Canada. Occupations in scientific fields accounted for 8% of the Calgary workforce, compared with 3% for Canada.

Educational Attainment of the Out-of-School Population Aged 15 and over, Calgary CMA and Canada, 1981



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-933, *Population: Language, Ethnic Origin, Religion, Place of Birth, Schooling - Alberta.*

Unemployment Rate, Calgary CMA and Canada, 1975-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-529, *Labour Force Annual Averages*, and 71-001, *The Labour Force.*

Incomes Above the Norm

Over the last decade, incomes in Calgary have been well above those for Canada as a whole. The extent of the difference, however, has varied with fluctuations in the oil industry. The median income[3] of Calgary residents in 1976 was $9,200, about 10% above the median for all Canada. By 1982, the median income in Calgary had risen to $17,000, almost 24% above the national figure. The next year, however, the difference began to narrow. In 1985, the median income in Calgary of $17,900 was still higher than the median for all Canada, but only by 16%.

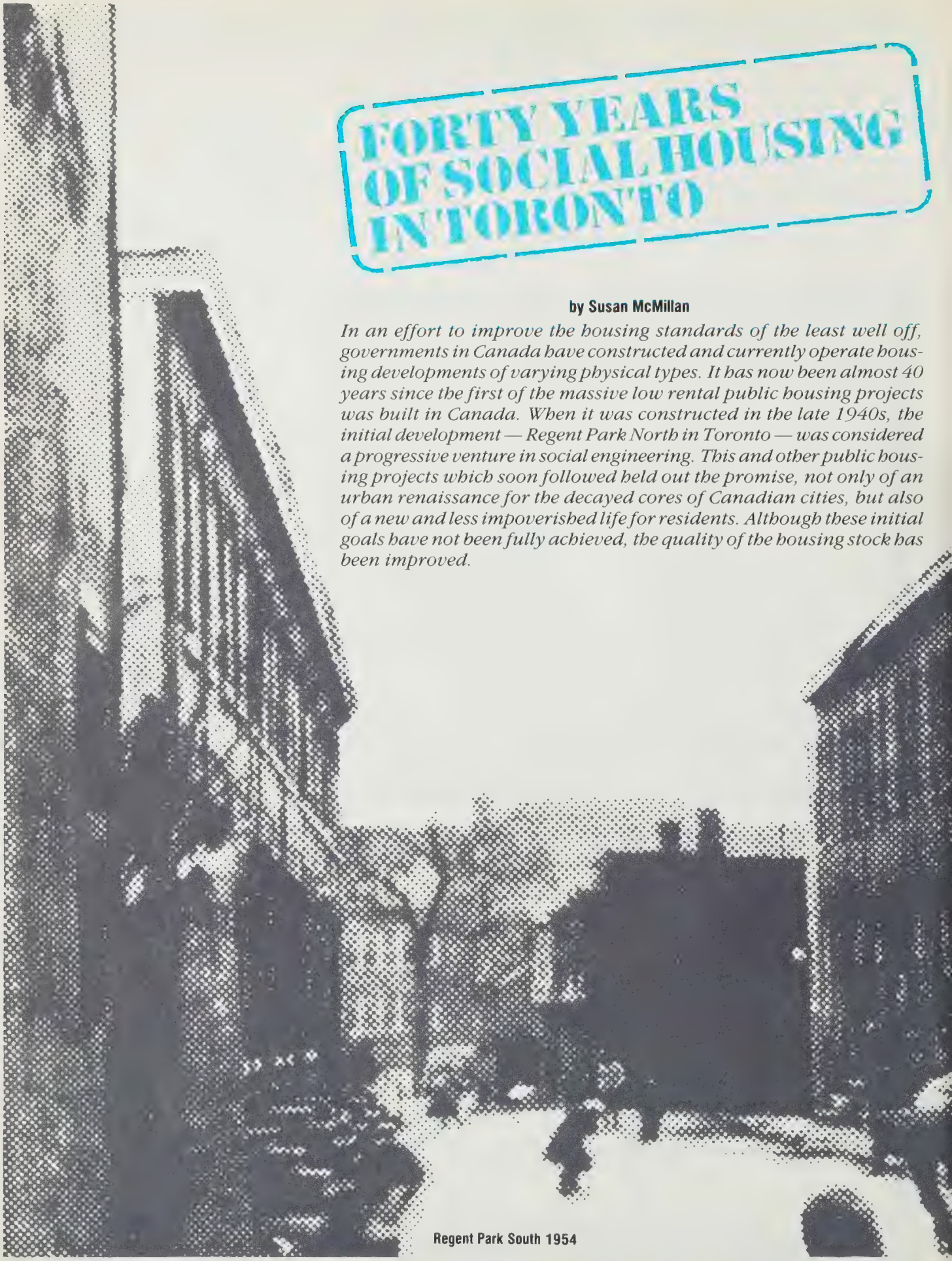
[3] Income data pertain to those who submitted income tax returns for the years in question. The median is the midway point: half the incomes are above the median, and half are below.

Nat Stone *is a special contributor to* Canadian Social Trends.

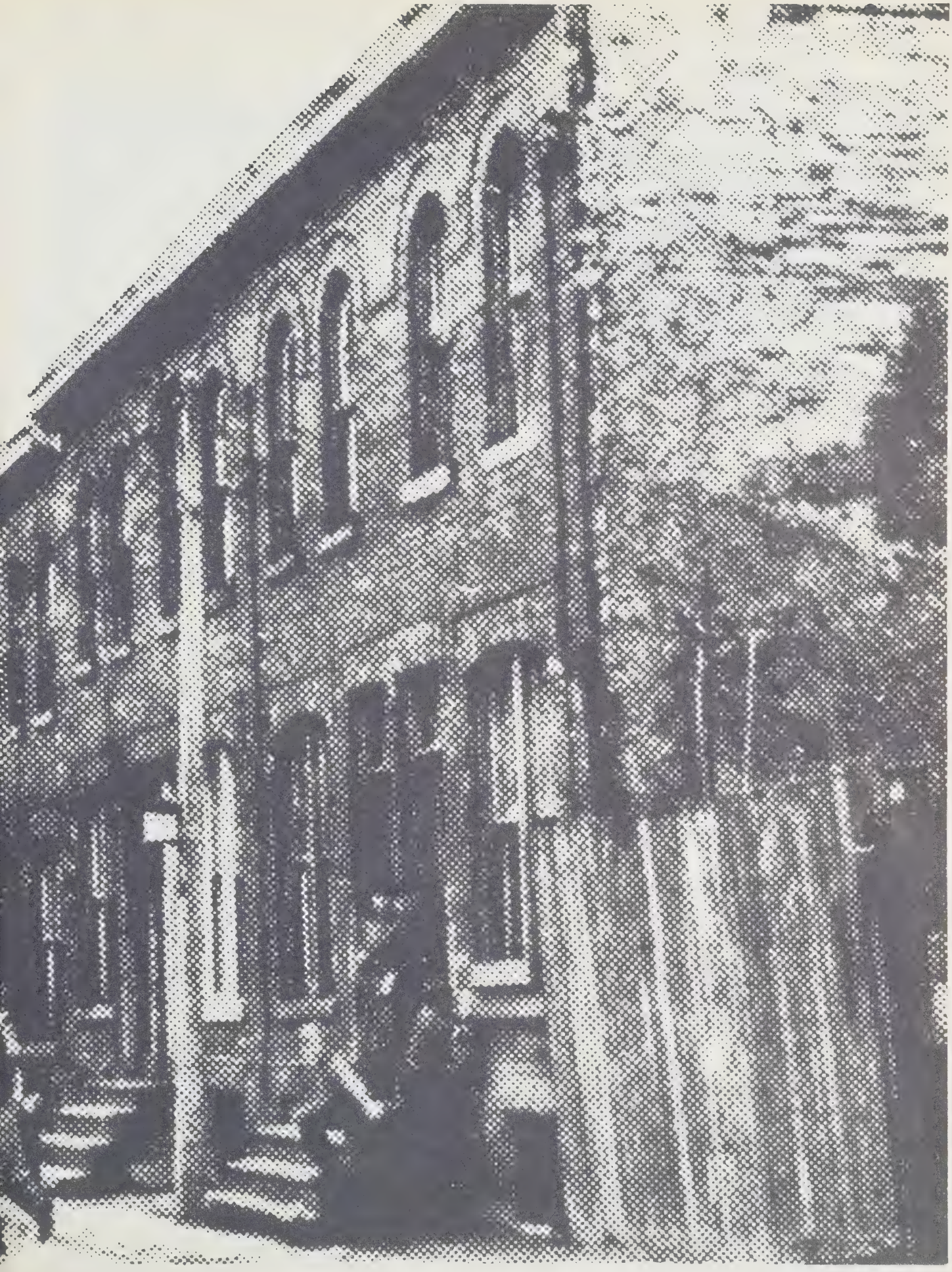
FORTY YEARS OF SOCIAL HOUSING IN TORONTO

by Susan McMillan

In an effort to improve the housing standards of the least well off, governments in Canada have constructed and currently operate housing developments of varying physical types. It has now been almost 40 years since the first of the massive low rental public housing projects was built in Canada. When it was constructed in the late 1940s, the initial development — Regent Park North in Toronto — was considered a progressive venture in social engineering. This and other public housing projects which soon followed held out the promise, not only of an urban renaissance for the decayed cores of Canadian cities, but also of a new and less impoverished life for residents. Although these initial goals have not been fully achieved, the quality of the housing stock has been improved.



Regent Park South 1954





The characteristics of today's public housing residents in Toronto not only differ from those of the city's residents in general, but they have also changed considerably since the first large-scale projects were built. In many instances, these changes reflect broader shifts occurring in Toronto or in Canadian society as a whole.

One feature that has consistently characterized these projects, and set them apart from the city as a whole since their construction, has been the persistent gap in employment and income levels between the residents of the projects and Toronto residents generally. In order to qualify as a project resident, an applicant must have a sufficiently low income. Projects thus tend to concentrate low-income persons in limited geographical areas. The outcome of such a process is that projects have higher-than-average numbers of female lone parents, dependent children and recent immigrants. They are also characterized by higher unemployment rates and lower-than-average labour force participation rates and incomes.

Nevertheless, the projects differ from each other in their physical characteristics (for example, urban or suburban location, and high-rise versus low-rise construction) and in the social characteristics of current groups of project residents. The four major projects described here were built in different time periods and take different physical shapes in distinctive Toronto locations. Each is unique.

Regent Park: The Original Slum Clearance Project, 1948

Regent Park has changed considerably since the days when it was first built. Some shifts in ethnic composition, age profile and family structure have followed patterns akin to those in the City of Toronto. However, other patterns, particularly the marked decline in the labour force participation rate for men between 1951 and 1981, are unique to Regent Park. In 1981, the percentage of Regent Park families headed by a lone parent was much higher than in Toronto as a whole. Also, that year, the percentage of Regent Park residents living below Statistics Canada's Low-Income Cut-Offs was considerably higher than for Toronto.

With few exceptions, the ethnic composition of Regent Park has reflected that of the city. In 1951, just over two-thirds of people in both the city and the project were of British origin. At the same time, a much larger percentage of Regent Park residents claimed French origin than did Toronto residents: 9% compared with 3%.

Thirty years later, the percentage of both Regent Park and Toronto residents claiming British origin had dropped significantly. In 1981, the percentage of those living in Regent Park claiming British origin had dropped to 52%, down from 67% in 1951. But for Toronto as a whole, the 1981 percentage was much lower at 42%, down from 69% in 1951. Visible minorities, on the other hand, had a much stronger presence in the project. In 1981, the percentage of Regent Park residents of the North and South American (including Caribbean) and African (including Black) origin was much higher than for the City of Toronto — 11% compared with 2%. Those of Chinese origin formed a significant minority in both the project (9%) and in the city as a whole (6%).

Despite the greater multicultural nature of Regent Park in 1981, the proportion of residents born outside Canada was smaller than in the City of Toronto (38% versus 43%), perhaps reflecting a large number of Canadian-born dependent children in the project. However, immigrants living in Regent Park tended to be more recent arrivals than those living in Toronto generally: 13% of Regent Park residents came to Canada between 1979 and 1981, compared with 9% of those in the city.

An aging trend, apparent in both Regent Park and Toronto between 1951 and 1981, was not as strong in the project as in the city as a whole. Over the three decades, the percentage of people aged 65 and over climbed from 6% to 8% in Regent Park. In Toronto, the percentage rose from 8% to 13%. In 1951, 12% of Regent Park residents were under age 5, compared with 10% of Toronto residents; by 1981, these percentages had dropped to 10% and 5%, respectively. Also in 1981, almost one-third of people living in Regent Park were under age 15, compared with only about one-sixth of Toronto residents.

Lone-parent families made up the majority of Regent Park families in 1981. Fully 53% of families were headed by a lone parent. The figure for Toronto was 15%.

In 1951, 30% of Regent Park households consisted of more than one family. The comparable figure for Toronto as a whole was 21%. But by 1981, multi-family households were a very small minority in both Regent Park and Toronto. Only 1% of Regent Park

households consisted of more than one family, slightly lower than the 2% for Toronto. This decline signals a large reduction in overcrowding over the period in Toronto. By 1981, the average number of persons per room was 0.5 for the city of Toronto as a whole and no more than 0.7 in any of the four developments discussed here.

Male participation in the labour force dropped markedly in Regent Park between 1951 and 1981. By 1981, just over half (54%) of the men in Regent Park compared with 79% of men in Toronto were in the labour force. For both groups, the labour force participation rate had been 85% in 1951.

Over the same period, female labour force participation increased in Regent Park, although not as quickly as in the city as a whole. For female Regent Park residents, the labour force participation rate rose from 28% to 38%, compared with a rise of 23%, from 38% to 61%, for Toronto women.

Unemployment levels remained at least twice as high in Regent Park as in Toronto between 1951 and 1981. In 1981, 12% of the Regent Park labour force was unemployed, compared with 5% in Toronto.

Median household incomes in Regent Park were less than half those in the city of Toronto in 1980. Median household incomes were $9,400 in Regent Park South and just $5,900 in Regent Park North. The comparable income figure for Toronto was $19,900.

As well, in 1980, a much larger proportion of people in Regent Park were living below Statistics Canada's Low-Income Cut-Offs than was the case in the city as a whole. That year, 79% of unattached individuals in Regent Park were below the Low-Income Cut-Offs, compared with 34% in Toronto. The discrepancy among families was even wider: 69% of families in Regent Park lived below the Low-Income Cut-Offs, compared with 17% of Toronto families.

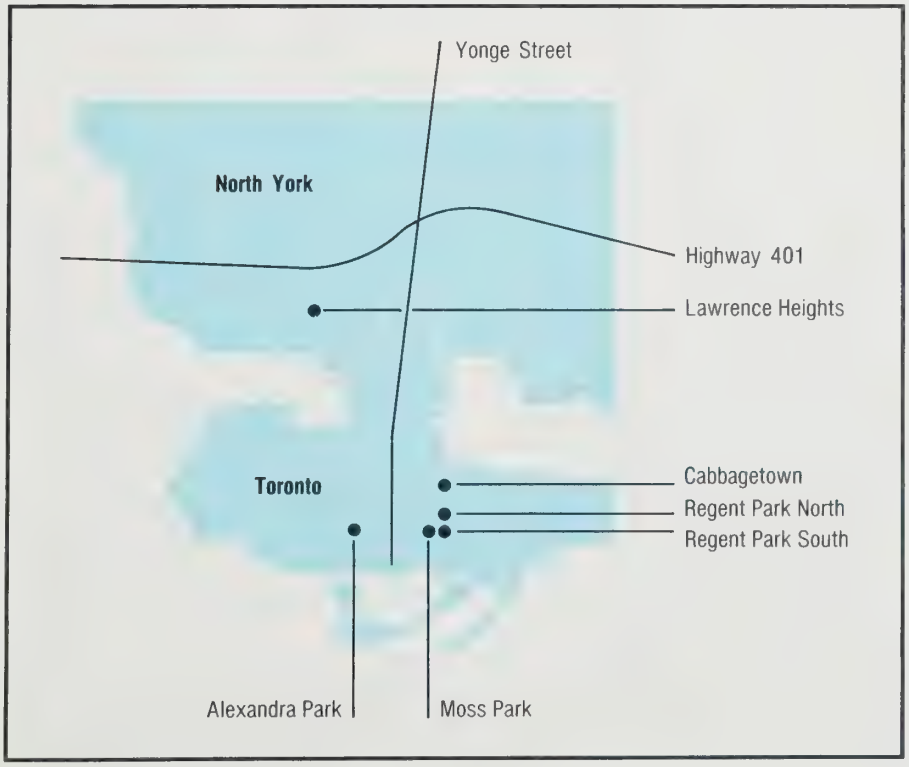
Lawrence Heights: Suburban High-Density, 1957

Lawrence Heights, a suburban development built as a compound of low-rise apartment buildings on 96 acres of farmland in North York, presents a slightly different pattern both architecturally and in terms of the characteristics of residents. Especially in terms of birth outside of Canada, Lawrence Heights residents were distinctive. About half the population of Lawrence Heights was born outside Canada, with most of these people immigrating between 1955 and 1977. Just over half of Lawrence Heights residents reported a non-British ethnic origin in 1981. A variety of origins made up this component: North and South American (including Caribbean), African (including Black), Greek, and Italian.

There was a smaller proportion of elderly persons in Lawrence Heights than in the City of Toronto. In 1981, 9% of Lawrence Heights residents were aged 65 and over, compared with 13% in Toronto. On the other hand, 30% of Lawrence Heights residents were under age 15, compared with 16% for Toronto. Families headed by a lone parent made up the majority of Lawrence Heights families in 1981: 55% compared with 15% for Toronto.

As in the case of Regent Park, labour force participation for both men and women was lower in Lawrence Heights than in Toronto. Fifty-nine percent of Lawrence Heights men were in the labour force in 1981, compared with 79% in Toronto. The percentage for Lawrence Heights women was 48%, compared with 61% for Toronto women. Unemployment rates were also higher in Lawrence Heights than in Toronto. In the public housing project, the unemployment rate was 7% for men and 8% for women. The comparable rate in Toronto for both men and women was 5%.

The median income of households in Lawrence Heights in 1980 is not available but in that year the average income was $12,900. The comparable figure for Toronto was $25,600. Thus, even when built in a suburban setting, public housing has tended to concentrate lone-parent families and visible minorities, as have the older downtown projects.



Moss Park: Downtown High Rise, 1960

Moss Park is a high-rise apartment complex. It is thus architectually less suited to the needs of families with young children. In 1981, Moss Park differed from Toronto as a whole as well as from other public housing projects, both in age and family structure. In Moss Park, there were proportionally fewer young children and many more elderly persons than in the other developments. The proportion of Moss Park's population under age 15 was 9%, less than Toronto with 16% and much less than other developments. The proportion of elderly aged 65 and over was 18% in Moss Park, compared with just 13% for Toronto.

In 1981, Moss Park had 29% of families headed by a lone parent, double the Toronto percentage of lone-parent families, but less than half the Regent Park proportion (69%).

The median household income in Moss Park, at $8,700, was less than half that for Toronto in 1980. However, Moss Park residents who did work had employment incomes similar to those in Toronto. For men, the Moss Park figure was lower than for Toronto — $12,000 compared with $14,500. But for women, employment income was actually higher

in Moss Park ($10,700) than for female workers in the city as a whole ($9,800).

The percentages of unattached individuals and families in Moss Park living below the Low-Income Cut-Offs were both considerably higher than those for Toronto as a whole. In 1981, 58% of unattached individuals and 37% of families in Moss Park were below the Low-Income Cut-Offs.

Alexandra Park: Mixed Renovation and Replacement, 1965

Alexandra Park is a downtown development in which total demolition did not occur. Rather, some old housing was renovated and new dwellings added to it. The 1981 profile of this project differed considerably from Toronto as a whole, as well as from Regent Park. The percentage of Alexandra Park residents claiming British origin was much lower than for Toronto in 1981. That year, only 28% of those living in Alexandra Park were of British origin compared with 20% in 1961. There were also large numbers of people living in Alexandra Park claiming Chinese and Portuguese origin — 23% and 16%, respectively.

As well, in 1981, 59% of Alexandra Park residents had been born outside Canada. Of those living in Alexandra Park who had immigrated to Canada, 12% had done so since 1979.

The project's multicultural nature is also reflected in the relatively high proportion of residents who speak a language other than English or French at home. In 1981, 41% spoke neither English nor French at home; in Toronto, the percentage was 25% and in Regent Park, only 15%.

The age profile of Alexandra Park is quite similar to that of Toronto. For example, in 1981, 14% of Alexandra Park residents were aged 65 and over, compared with 13% of those in Toronto. At the other end of the age range, 6% of the projects residents were under 5 years of age, compared with 5% for the city.

The proportion of lone-parent families in Alexandra Park was double that in Toronto as a whole. In 1981, 29% of families in this public housing project were headed by a lone parent.

The percentage of multi-family households in Alexandra Park dropped sharply between 1961 and 1981, yet remained higher than in Toronto. In 1981, 4% of the project's households contained more than one family, down from 21% in 1961 in the area where the development was subsequently built.

► *Continued page 30*



Regent Park 1987

Cabbagetown: Private Renovation Adjacent to Regent Park

Gerrard Street is the northern boundary of Regent Park North. North of that thoroughfare lies Cabbagetown, a stylish neighbourhood of renovated Victorian three-storey detached and semi-detached homes which, although run-down in the 1940s, were not included in the Regent Park demolition area. Although physically adjacent, the social profiles of Regent Park and Cabbagetown are substantially different.

Before the days of Regent Park, the two areas were more or less identical in dwelling conditions and characteristics of residents. But, as has been the case for three decades, the residents of Regent Park are now dissimilar, both economically and socially, from their near neighbours. Thus public housing of the Regent Park type, while offering better quality housing, has not fundamentally altered the social gulf which Gerrard Street has come to physically represent. Residents of the two communities still stand apart.

While Regent Park is a community of lone-parent families and many children, Cabbagetown residents tend to be childless couples. More than half the housing project families were headed by a lone parent in 1981, compared with only about 18% north of the Gerrard Street boundary. Consistent with its lone-parent profile, Regent Park was characterized by considerably more adult women than men. In Cabbagetown, the opposite was true. In 1981, 30% of Regent Park residents were under the age of 15, while in Cabbagetown the young made up only about 12%. In fact, more than 40% of Cabbagetown families were childless, compared with 12% in Regent Park.

The labour force participation rates of both men and women in Cabbagetown were higher than in Regent Park and unemployment was much lower — less than 5%. Median household incomes in 1980 were at least $14,000[1] higher than in Regent Park.

In terms of ethnic origin, those of British extraction predominate in both communities. But with the exception of French and Chinese origins, no other ethnic group affiliations were recorded in significant numbers in Cabbagetown in 1981. By contrast, there were large Black and Asian communities in Regent Park at the time of the 1981 Census.

[1] Cabbagetown is divided into two areas: one had a median household income of $19,700; the other, $28,100.

'Big Project' Public Housing in Toronto

Official recognition of inferior housing conditions in the Municipality of Toronto came in 1934 in an Ontario government report (the 'Bruce Report' — named after the then Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario). However, the Depression and wartime stringencies that followed precluded any immediate remedial action. But rapid urban population growth after World War II which reflected migration to the cities, high levels of immigration, and increased levels of child-bearing once again made the decayed state of the housing stock a public issue. Overcrowding, deterioration of inner-city dwellings, and suburban subdivision development each played a part in fostering demands for slum clearance and for low-cost rental housing.

To begin meeting these needs, the first major development project in Canada, *Regent Park North*, was initiated as a city-financed slum clearance and construction project. Between 1948 and 1957, existing housing was razed, and a complex of low-rise apartment blocks and rowhouses containing over 1,000 units was built.

The project was hailed as a milestone in slum clearance, and in 1958, the Toronto Board of Trade journal concluded optimistically that "experience in *Regent Park North* has now been sufficient to indicate very clearly that a new environment can do much to aid people in developing their individual strengths as well as their family ties".

Later projects were of a considerably higher density than *Regent Park North* in order to reduce costs. *Regent Park South,* for example, built in 1957-58 directly south of the first project, consists of high-rise apartment buildings containing almost 500 units. Another 253 units of row housing constructed nearby were intended primarily for families with young children.

Lawrence Heights, developed between 1957 and 1961 and owned by the Ontario Housing Corporation, differed from other public housing projects of the era. It was built in a newly developed suburban area, so no process of slum clearance preceded its construction. This project consists of just over 1,000 units



Moss Park 1964

in nineteen 3½-storey walk-ups and 66 blocks of rowhouses, as well as some semi-detached and detached homes. (An additional 127 senior citizen units in the area are owned by Metropolitan Toronto.) By design, *Lawrence Heights* was spatially and socially isolated from the surrounding neighbourhoods, a feature that drew criticism in its early stages.

Between 1960 and 1964, *Moss Park* was built just southwest of *Regent Park.* This high-density public housing project consists of three 15-storey buildings containing about 900 units in total. Before the project was constructed, the area it now occupies was a neighbourhood of private homes, rooming houses, and small industrial buildings. Residences in the area were, in the main, not structurally dilapidated. Nonetheless, clearance was seen as preferable to rehabilitation and maintenance.

Work began on *Alexandra Park* in southwest Toronto in 1965. Instead of removal and replacement of all dwellings, this project entailed both rehabilitation of some houses and complete replacement of others. Full demolition, a feature of early developments, had fallen from favour by 1965.

The original plan for *Alexandra Park* called for clearance of 39 of the total of 72 acres. Four hundred and ten housing units were eventually built in two high-rise buildings and a number of rowhouses. The remaining area was devoted to new and rehabilitated private dwellings, commercial buildings, new non-profit co-operative housing units, and senior citizen units. Other space was devoted to industrial and institutional uses. This mixture has given *Alexandra Park* a very different look from other public housing complexes.

During the 1960s, after several major public housing projects had been completed, attitudes toward this type of housing began to shift, and criticism of major projects in principle became prevalent. Opponents pointed to the disruption imposed on communities for which clearance was being considered, as well as to the hardship of individual households whose homes were expropriated. This was particularly true for families not relocated in the new project. Some homeowners were unable to purchase a replacement home elsewhere with the proceeds of the expropriation. Other unattached residents and lodgers, not eligible to relocate, had to search for inexpensive accommodation outside the area. Many eligible families never relocated in the projects, but simply left the area, thereby contributing to the dissolution of an established community. The complexes also lacked social support systems such as community centres, daycare facilities, accessible parking, and playgrounds.

In the 1980s, public housing has taken on a new and broader meaning: mammoth public housing developments are no longer built. Such projects were primarily concentrated in Toronto, but public housing on a much smaller scale has been built throughout the country. Over 200,000 units have been built in Canada.

In Metropolitan Toronto today, emphasis is placed on 'assisted housing', particularly through mixed income programmes in which tenants pay rent according to their incomes, but with the majority paying market rents. There are a number of mixed income programmes; units may be leased by housing authorities in privately-owned buildings; non-profit building projects are also operated by some municipalities; and church, service, and other non-profit groups build and operate private non-profit housing. Such co-operative housing allows residents to participate in the management and maintenance of their own facilities, while subsidized housing in mixed buildings permits those with low incomes to blend in and live on an equal footing with unsubsidized tenants, thereby avoiding the stigma often attached to public housing residents.

Comparison of Selected Public Housing Projects, Cabbagetown and Toronto, 1981

		Developments				Adjacent private renovation
	City of Toronto	Regent Park (built 1948)	Lawrence Heights (built 1957)	Moss Park (built 1960)	Alexandra Park (built 1965)	Cabbagetown
Population						
Population	599,220	9,970	3,770	4,600	3,830	4,180
% under 5 years	5	10	8	4	6	4
% under 15 years	16	30	30	9	22	12
% 65 and over	13	8	9	18	14	5
Population 15 and over - % women	52	57	60	44	52	47
- % men	48	43	40	56	48	53
Households and Families						
Average persons per household	2.4	2.9	3.2	1.7	3.0	2.3
Average persons per room	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.4
% with more than one family	2.3	1.3	. . .	. . .	3.9	. . .
% of lone-parent families	15	69	55	29	29	18
Home Language						
Neither English nor French (%)	25	15	-	-	41	-
Labour Force						
Participation rate (%) - men	79	54	59	63	63	83
- women	61	39	48	45	47	66
Unemployment rate (%) - men	5	13	7	11	6	7
- women	5	12	8	4	2	2
Income (1980)		North South				
Median household income	19,900	5,900 9,400	12,800[1]	8,700	10,400	19,700/28,100[2]
Median employment income - men	14,500	6,400 7,800	-	12,000	10,200	15,700/17,000
- women	9,800	6,100 7,400	-	10,700	5,600	9,500/ 9,200
% living below the Low-Income Cut-Offs - families	17	69	-	37	47	12
- individuals	34	79	-	58	66	40

- Not available.
Too small to report.
[1] Average household income.
[2] For median income, Cabbagetown is divided into two areas.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada.

Labour force participation dropped somewhat for men in Alexandra Park between 1961 and 1981, while for women, it remained stable. In 1981, 63% of adult male residents of Alexandra Park were in the labour force, compared with 79% in 1961. Throughout the same period, just under half of adult women living in this project participated in the labour force. At the same time, unemployment rates for both men and women dropped quite sharply.

Unemployment among men in Alexandra Park fell from 16% in 1961 to 6% in 1981. The comparable rate for men in Toronto in 1981 was lower, at 5%. The rate for female Alexandra Park residents also declined over the two decades, from 5% to 2%. In 1981, the unemployment rate of these women was actually lower than for women in Toronto as a whole (5%).

Median household income in Alexandra Park was just over half that in Toronto, at $10,400 in 1980. That year, two-thirds of unattached individuals and almost half of families lived below the Low-Income Cut-Offs, despite the relatively high levels of employment characteristic of this development.

Conclusion

While there is considerable variety in the social characteristics of the residents of these four public housing projects, there are underlying uniformities. All of the project residents taken together differ from Torontonians in general.

All four developments have a much higher percentage of both families and unattached individuals living below the Low-Income Cut-Offs; labour force participation for both men and women is lower than in Toronto as a whole, and in most cases, unemployment is higher; and the percentage of project families headed by a lone parent is at least double that in Toronto. Thus, public housing projects continue to concentrate the less well off in specific geographic areas where significant redevelopment efforts were made in the 1950s and 1960s.

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WOMEN PARENTING ALONE

by Maureen Moore

The number of lone-parent families, most of which are headed by women, has increased sharply in Canada in the last several decades. At the same time, the number of children being raised in these families has also risen dramatically. In fact, over one million Canadian children are currently living in families with just one parent.

Growth in the number of lone-parent families is of special concern because these families, particularly those headed by women, face a variety of economic disadvantages. For example, over half of lone-parent families headed by women, have incomes that fall below official Statistics Canada's Low-Income Cut-Off lines. As well, lone-parent families headed by women generally have less desirable living accommodations and fewer basic household facilities than other families.



The Growth of Lone-Parent Families

Between 1931 and 1986, the number of lone-parent families in Canada grew from 291,900 to 853,600. The increase, however, has been particularly rapid since the mid-1960s. Over the period 1966-1986, the number of lone-parent families rose 130%, while husband-wife families increased only 42%. As a result, by 1986, families headed by lone parents represented 13% of all families. This was up from 8% in 1966, but was still below the level recorded in 1931 (14%).

The percentage of all children under age 25 living in lone-parent families also increased substantially in the past two decades. In 1986, about 1.2 million children — more than 14% of all children in Canada — lived in lone-parent families.

In comparison, in 1966 fewer than 7% of all Canadian children lived in lone-parent families.

Lone-Parent Families Headed by Women

Most lone parents are women. In 1986, more than 700,000 lone-parent families, or 82% of the total, were headed by women. Women also constituted the majority of lone parents in every age group. The predominance of women as lone-parent family-heads was particularly great in younger age brackets.

Women made up 94% of all lone parents aged 15-24 in 1986, compared with 85% of those aged 25-44, and 77% of lone parents aged 45 and over.

Changing Paths to Lone Parenthood

The principal circumstances that result in women becoming lone parents have changed over the last few decades. Specifically, the percentage of female lone parents who are widowed has declined, while the proportions who are divorced or who have never married have increased.

In 1951, about two-thirds of female lone parents were widowed. By 1986, however, over half (57%) of female lone parents were either separated or divorced, while the percentage who were widowed had fallen to 28%.

The increase in the proportion of divorced female lone parents was especially sharp after the Divorce Act was passed in 1968. In fact, divorced mothers made up the largest single component of all lone-parent mothers (30%) in 1986; in comparison, in 1951 just 3% of lone-parent mothers had been divorced. In the same period, the percentage of female lone parents who were separated actually declined slightly, from 29% to 28%.

The proportion of lone-parent mothers who have never married has also increased substantially. Never-married women made up 15% of all female lone parents in 1986, up from just 1% in 1951. The marked growth in the proportion of never-married female lone parents reflects the overall rise in the number of out-of-wedlock births. These births more than quadrupled, from about 14,000 in 1951 to 59,600 in 1985. In this period, out-of-wedlock births as a percentage of total births increased from less than 4% to more than 16%.

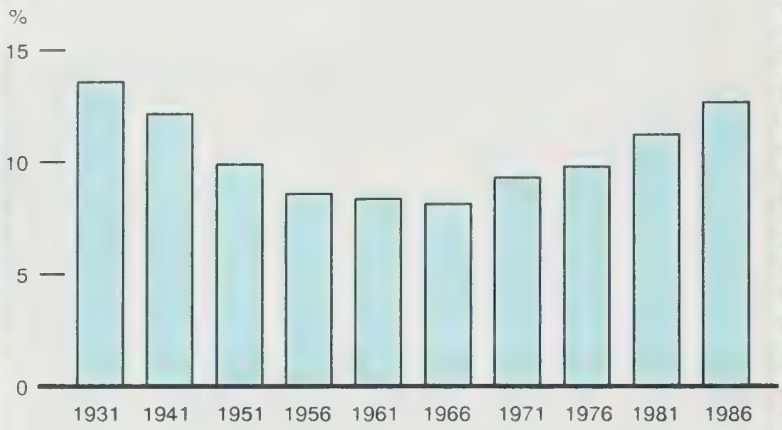
The marital status of female lone parents is associated with their ages. Three-quarters of those who had never married, for example, were younger than age 35, while separated and divorced

Lone Parents by Age and Sex, 1986

Age Group	Women		Men		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
15-24	49,670	94	3,005	6	52,665	100
25-44	363,950	85	63,050	15	427,005	100
45-64	209,570	76	65,890	24	275,460	100
65 and over	78,715	80	19,800	20	98,510	100
Total	**701,900**	**82**	**151,745**	**18**	**853,645**	**100**

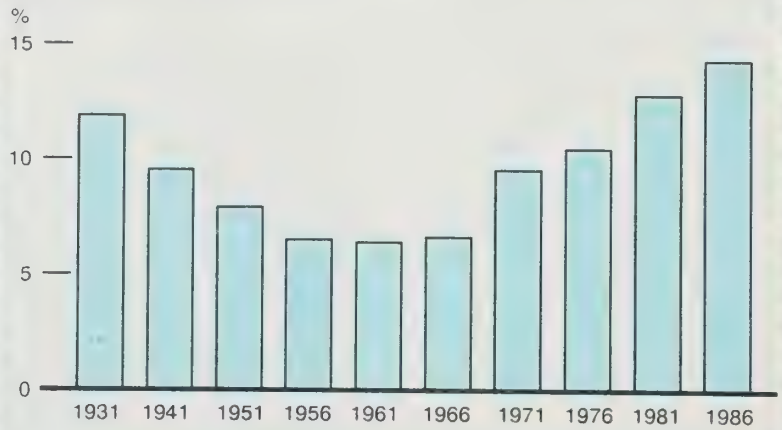
Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Lone-Parent Families as a Percentage of All Families, 1931-1986



Sources: Wargon, S., *Canada's Lone-Parent Families*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-933, and 1986 Census of Canada.

Children in Lone-Parent Families as a Percentage of all Children[1], 1931-1986



[1] Refers to children under 25 living at home.

Sources: Statistics Canada, Wargon, S., *Children in Canadian Families*, Catalogue 98-810 and *Canada's Lone-Parent Families*, Catalogue 99-933, and 1986 Census of Canada.

lone parents were clustered in their thirties and forties. Widows tended to be somewhat older; in 1986, about two-thirds of widowed lone parents were aged 55 or over.

Family Histories of Female Lone Parents and Wives[1]

The majority of female lone parents at one time were either married or lived in a common-law relationship. However, according to Statistics Canada's 1984 Family History Survey, their marital and childbearing patterns differed somewhat from those of women who were married or partners in a common-law relationship at the time of the survey.

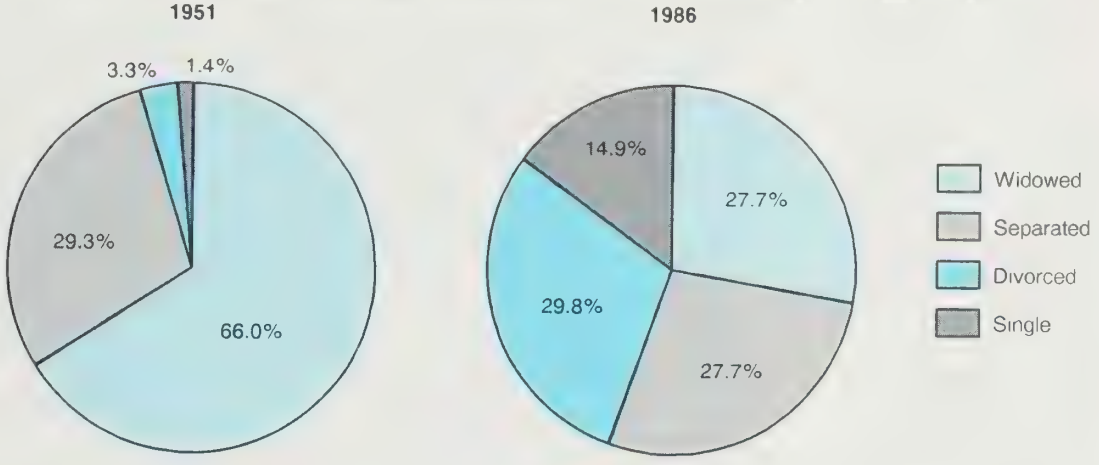
Female lone parents tended to have entered their first marital or common-law union at a younger age than wives: 28% of lone parents had been in a union before they were 19, compared with 24% of wives. This difference was most noticeable among young women. Of women aged 20-24, 80% of lone parents had been in a union before they were 19, compared with 53% of wives.

Female lone parents were also more likely than wives to have lived common-law. Twenty-two percent of female lone parents had been in a common-law partnership, compared with 17% of wives.

As well, a higher percentage of female lone parents than wives entered a marital or common-law union around the time they gave birth. More than a quarter (26%) of female lone parents gave birth before or during the year they entered the union, compared with 16% of wives.

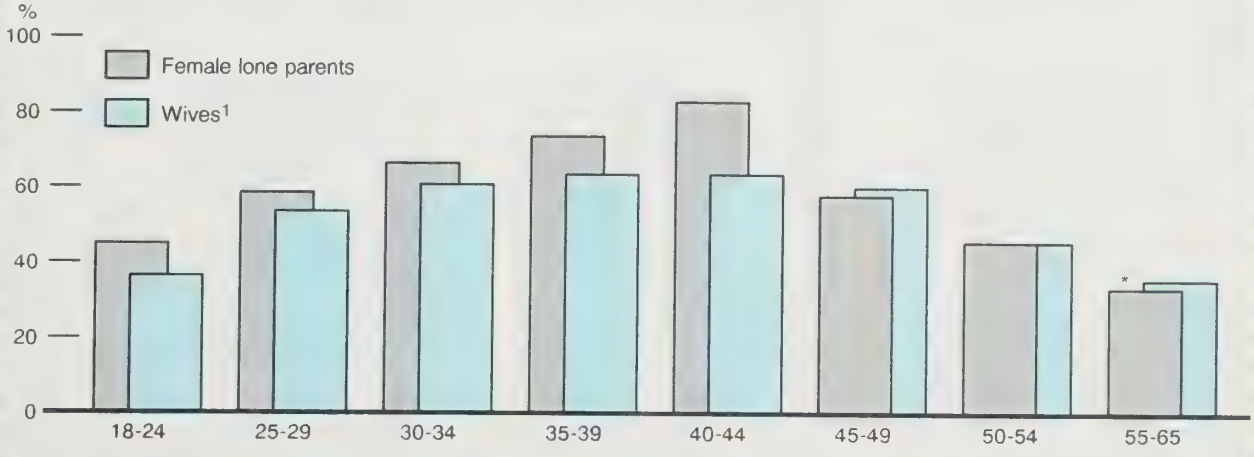
[1] Wives refers to women who are spouses or common-law partners with children.

Marital Status of Female Lone Parents, 1951 and 1986



Sources: Wargon, S., *Canada's Lone-Parent Families*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-933, and Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-106, *Families, Part 1*.

Labour Force Participation Rates of Female Lone Parents and Wives, by Age, 1984



[1] Women who were spouses or common-law partners and had children under 25 at home.
* Data are subject to considerable sampling error and should be used with caution.
Source: Poole, I., and M. Moore, *Lone Parenthood: Characteristics and Determinants, Results from the 1984 Family History Survey*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-961.

Female lone parents also tended to have had a child earlier in life than did wives. Whereas 26% of female lone parents had their first child before they were 20, the comparable proportion for wives was 20%.

Education and Labour Force Characteristics of Female Lone Parents

Female lone parents generally had less formal education than wives. Just 24% of female lone parents, as opposed to 31% of wives, had at least some postsecondary training. In every age group, the percentage of wives who had attended a postsecondary institution exceeded the corresponding proportion for female lone parents.

On the other hand, a higher proportion of female lone parents than wives were in the labour force. For example, the 1984 labour force participation rate among women aged 18-24, was 45% for lone parents and 37% for wives. Labour force participation peaked for both groups among those aged 40-44, but at 83%, the participation rate for female lone parents was much greater than that for wives (64%). However, for women aged 45-64, the labour force participation rate for wives slightly exceeded that for lone parents.

A higher percentage of female lone parents began working only after the birth of their first child. Of those women who had ever worked, 30% of lone parents, compared with 17% of wives, started working after they first gave birth. As well, once in the labour force, female lone parents were more likely than wives to work continuously.

Income

The average income of female-headed lone-parent families was less than half that of husband-wife families with children. In 1985, lone-parent families headed by women had an average income of just over $20,000, compared with almost $44,000 for husband-wife families with children.

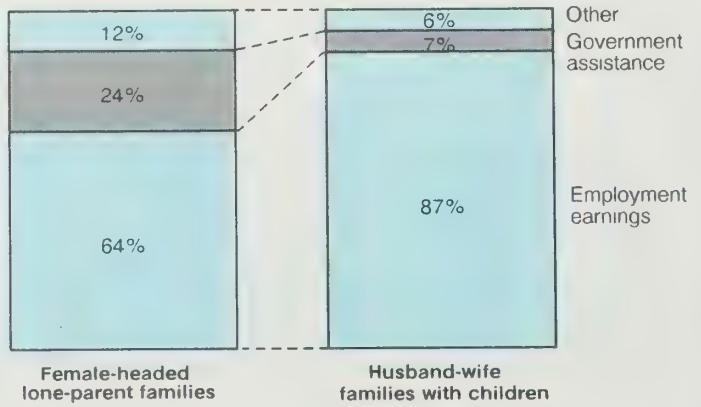
The sources of income of lone-parent families and husband-wife families with children also differ significantly. While earnings were the main source of income for both, female lone-parent families derived only 64% of their total income from earnings, compared with 87% for husband-wife families. On the other hand, government assistance, including family and youth allowances, unemployment insurance, social assistance, and pension benefits, made

Living Accommodations and Household Facilities of Female Lone-Parent Households and Husband-Wife Households with Children, 1986

	Female lone-parent households	Husband-wife households with children under age 18
	%	
Accommodations		
Renting	72	27
Single-detached dwelling	30	66
Built 1960 or before	40	35
Vehicles		
Automobiles		
—One	49	55
—Two or more	6	31
Vans and trucks	5	29
Comfort and safety		
Air conditioner	11	17
Smoke detector	63	80
Portable fire extinguisher	18	43
Cooking and cleaning		
Microwave oven	22	43
Freezer	40	70
Dishwasher	24	50
Automatic washing machine	64	86
Clothes dryer	60	84
Entertainment		
Record player	71	84
Tape recorder	60	72
Home computer	9	17
Videocassette recorder	22	49
Pay television	9	11
Black and white television only	8	3

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-218, *Household Facilities by Income and Other Characteristics*, and Household Surveys Division, unpublished data.

Sources of Income of Female-Headed Lone-Parent Families and Husband-Wife Families with Children, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Survey of Consumer Finances, unpublished data.

up almost one-quarter of the total income of lone-parent families headed by women. In comparison, government transfers accounted for only 7% of the income of husband-wife families with children.

Lone-parent families headed by women had the highest incidence of low income of all family types. As well, the percentage of these families with low incomes increased in the early 1980s. In 1985, 60% of all lone-parent families headed by women had incomes that fell below Statistics Canada's Low-Income Cut-Offs. This was up from 53% in 1981. In contrast, just 11% of husband-wife families with children had incomes below the Low-Income Cut-Offs in 1985.

Family Expenditures

A survey of 17 major Canadian cities showed that in 1984, female-headed lone-parent families spent almost half (48%) of their before-tax income on basic necessities such as food, shelter and household operations. For husband-wife families with children, these expenditures accounted for just over a third (34%) of pre-tax income.

Relative income levels were also reflected in differences between the living accommodations and household facilities of lone-parent and other families. In 1986, just 30% of female-headed lone-parent families were living in single-detached houses; the corresponding figure for other families with children was 66%. As well, 72% of female-headed lone-parent families were renters, compared with 27% of other families. The dwellings of lone-parent families were also somewhat older than those of other families.

Virtually every household in Canada, whether lone-parent or not, had major household appliances and communications equipment such as refrigerators, telephones, radios and television sets. Lone-parent families headed by women, however, were less likely than other families with children to have appliances such as freezers, dishwashers and clothes dryers. Only 40% of lone-parent households, compared with 70% of other family households, for example, had a freezer. The proportions with a dishwasher were 24% for lone-parent families and 50% for other families.



Selected Characteristics of Female Lone Parents and Wives, 1984

		Female lone parents	Wives[1]
		%	
Less than age 19 at first union		28	4
Ever in a common-law union		22	17
Less than age 20 at birth of first child		26	20
Union before or in same year as birth of first child		26	16
At least some postsecondary education		24	31
Less than age 20 at labour force entry[2]		57	59
Started working only after birth of first child[2]		30	17
Labour force participation rate		61	57
Work interruptions lasting at least one year[2]	(number)	0.8	1.0

[1] Women who were spouses or common-law partners, and had children younger than 25 at home.
[2] Includes only those who ever worked.
Source: Poole, I., and Moore, M., *Lone Parenthood: Characteristics and Determinants, Results from the 1984 Family History Survey*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-961.

This article combines information from several Statistics Canada sources. Long-term trends in both the number of lone-parent families and the number of children in these families are from the Census. Details on lone parents' marital and childbearing histories, as well as their education and labour force experience, are from the 1984 Family History Survey. Information about spending patterns is derived from the Survey of Family Expenditures. Data on dwelling characteristics and household facilities are from the Survey of Household Facilities and Equipment, and income figures are from the Survey of Consumer Finances.

Because these sources use different methodologies and definitions, the results are not strictly comparable. All sources define lone parents as people who do not live with a spouse or common-law partner, but who have at least one child still at home. However, the 1984 Family History Survey included only lone parents aged 18-65, while the other sources included lone parents of all ages. In the Census, children at home included those of any age (unless otherwise specified) provided they were unmarried. The Family History Survey, however, had an upper age limit of 24 on children at home, while the Survey of Household Facilities and Equipment and the Survey of Consumer Finances included only children under age 18.

Conveniences and entertainment equipment such as microwave ovens, home computers and videocassette recorders, were also found less frequently in the homes of female lone parents than in other family households with children. While just 22% of lone-parent homes were equipped with a microwave oven, the proportion for other homes was 43%. Nine percent of lone-parent households had a home computer, and 22% had a videocassette recorder. The proportions for other family households were 17% and 49%, respectively.

Safety devices were also not as common in lone-parent homes as in households occupied by other families. Smoke detectors were installed in 63% of lone-parent homes, compared with 80% of other homes. The proportions with a fire extinguisher were 18% for lone-parent families and 43% for other households.

Lone-parent families headed by women were also less likely than other families to have an automobile. In 1984, 55% of female-headed lone-parent families had a car; the corresponding figure for other families with children was 86%.

Conclusion

Women of all ages are lone parents. While the characteristics of these women and the circumstances that produced their situations differ, it is possible to outline a general profile of female lone parents. Typically, the majority are either separated or divorced women who entered unions and started childbearing at relatively young ages. They also tend to have less education, but are more likely to be in the labour force than are wives. Thus, lone-parent mothers must raise children while facing a double disadvantage: they lack support from a spouse, yet have fewer job skills by which to gain an income appropriate to the task.

The income of lone-parent families headed by women is substantially below that of other families. This is reflected in the high percentage of such families with incomes below official Low-Income Cut-Offs and with living accommodations and household resources that are inferior to those of other families.

Maureen Moore *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*



1986 CENSUS HIGHLIGHTS

AGING OF THE CANADIAN POPULATION

by Mary Sue Devereaux

1986 Census figures indicate that the rate of population growth in Canada continued to decline in the 1980s. Between 1981 and 1986, the population grew by only 4%, the lowest five-year increase in the last 25 years. Nevertheless, large-scale changes in the age distribution have continued. In particular, there has been considerable growth in the elderly segments of the population and in the proportion of people in their prime working years. On the other hand, the number of young adults has fallen dramatically.

These shifts in the age structure of the population reflect both increases in life expectancy and changing birth rates in the past, particularly the baby-boom of the 1950s and early 1960s and the baby-bust of the late 1960s and 1970s. As people born in those periods move through their life-cycle, they have had, or will have, profound effects on the school system, the labour force, family and housing services, health care institutions, and many other aspects of society.

The aging of the population is reflected in the median age, which in 1986 was the highest ever recorded. That year, the median age of Canadians was 31.6, up from 29.6 in 1981. Barring radical changes in fertility patterns or immigration levels, the median age is expected to continue to rise throughout the rest of the century.

Elderly Population Increasing

The population aged 65 and over has been the fastest-growing age group in Canada in the 1980s. The number of elderly Canadians rose 14% from 2.4 million in 1981 to 2.7 million in 1986, a rate of growth more than three times that of the population as a whole (4%). As a consequence of this growth, the proportion of the population aged 65 and over rose from 9.7% in 1981 to 10.7% in 1986.

Growth in the number of Canadians aged 75 and over was particularly rapid. In 1986, more than one million people were at least age 75, an increase of almost 19% since 1981. During this period, the share of the population accounted for by those aged 75 and over rose from 3.6% to 4.1%.

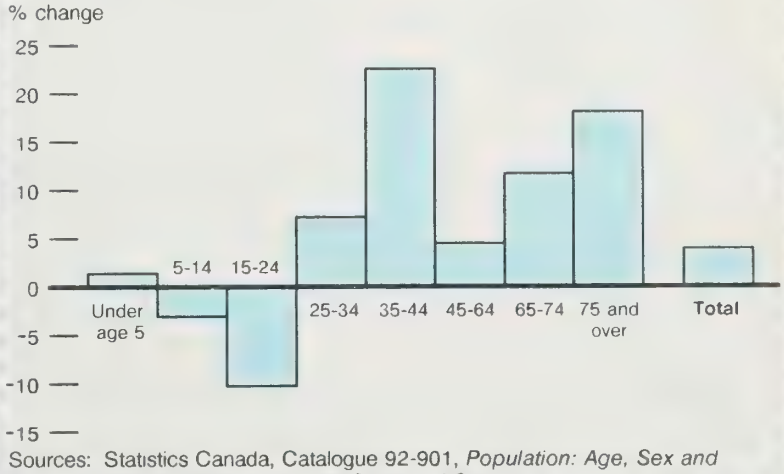
In most age groups under 60, the number of men and women is roughly equal. Women, however, make up the majority of those aged 60 and over. As well, the predominance of women increases at successively older ages. In 1986, there were 138 women for every 100 men aged 65 and over, while among those aged 85 and over, women outnumbered men by more than two to one. This imbalance is largely due to differences in longevity, with women outliving men an average of seven years.

The high growth rate of the population aged 65 and over is expected to continue well into the next century. In all probability, this will increase the demand for health and social services oriented to the elderly.

Working-Age Population Growing

The number of Canadians aged 25-44 has also increased substantially in the 1980s. Between 1981 and 1986, the population in this age group increased almost 14%. As a result, the proportion of all Cana-

Percentage Change in the Size of Various Age Groups, 1981-1986

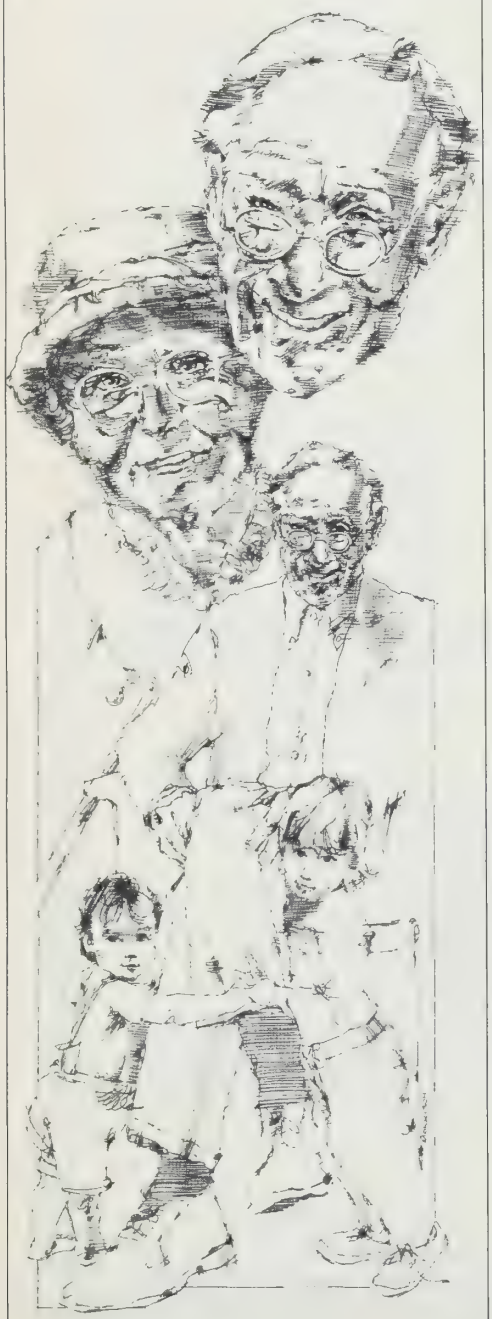


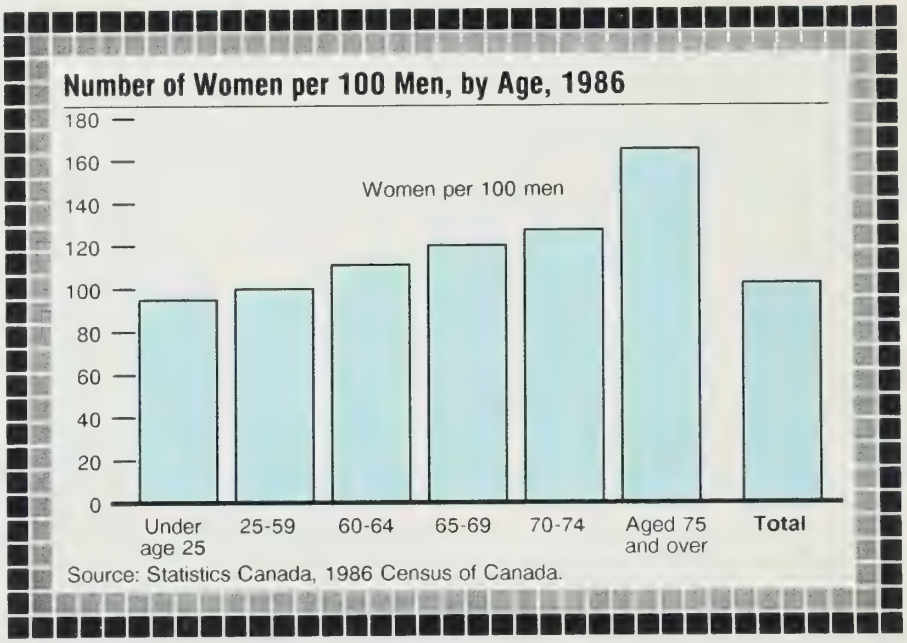
Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 92-901, *Population: Age, Sex and Marital Status*, and 1986 Census of Canada.

Population Distribution by Age Group, 1981 and 1986

	Age groups								
	Under age 5	5-14	15-24	25-34	35-44	45-64	65-74	75 and over	Total
Total population (000s)									
1981	1,783.4	3,697.7	4,658.7	4,216.2	2,968.2	4,658.1	1,477.7	883.2	24,343.2
1986	1,810.2	3,581.8	4,178.2	4,527.2	3,640.9	4,873.5	1,650.1	1,047.5	25,309.3
Percentage of total population									
1981	7.3	15.2	19.1	17.3	12.2	19.1	6.1	3.6	100.0
1986	7.1	14.2	16.5	17.9	14.4	19.3	6.6	4.1	100.0
Percentage change 1981-1986	1.5	-3.1	-10.3	7.4	22.7	4.6	11.7	18.6	4.0

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 92-901, *Population: Age, Sex and Marital Status*, and 1986 Census of Canada.





dians aged 25-44 rose from 29.5% in 1981 to 32.3% in 1986.

The size of the population aged 45-64 has been relatively stable. The number of Canadians in this age range rose by just under 5% in the 1981-1986 period. Their share of the total population remained almost unchanged at a little over 19%.

Young Adult Population Declining

There has been a marked decline in the population aged 15-24, most of whom were born during the so-called baby-bust of the late 1960s and 1970s. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of 15-24-year-olds fell 10%. Consequently, the share of the population accounted for by this age group declined from 19.1% to 16.5%.

One effect of the shrinking population aged 15-24 has been that the number of new labour market entrants has fallen dramatically. This contrasts sharply with the 1970s, when baby-boomers flooded into the labour force in record numbers.

Child Population Stable

Compared with the rapid growth in the number of children during the baby-boom, and the sharp decline during the subsequent baby-bust, the population aged 14 and under has been relatively stable in the 1980s.

From 1981 to 1986, the number of children under age 5 rose 2%, while the population aged 5-14 fell 3%. As a result, the overall share of the total population accounted for by these age groups dropped from 22.5% to 21.3%. The relative stability of this population suggests that enrolment in elementary and secondary schools should be stable into the early 1990s.

Mary Sue Devereaux *is Associate Managing Editor of* **Canadian Social Trends**.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	23,747.3	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,631.3	24,883.6	25,122.8	25,358.2	25,588.3
Annual growth (%)	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9
Immigration	82,939	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	87,794[p]
Emigration	63,559	51,060	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	50,358[p]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.5	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.8[p]
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.9	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	7.5[p]
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	652	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,395	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311	11,634
– goods sector (000s)	3,474	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348	3,417
– services sector (000s)	6,921	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963	8,217
Total unemployment (000s)	836	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328	1,236
Unemployment rate	7.4	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.6
Part-time employment %	12.5	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.6
Women's participation rate	49.0	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3	55.1
Unionization rate – % of paid workers	30.3	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income – 1985 $	35,158	36,400	35,450	34,026	33,454	33,431	34,076	*
% of families with low income	13.1	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	13.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	63.3	–	63.6	64.0	–	65.5	64.9	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,184.7	5,106.3	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.9	4,941.7[p]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	623.5	643.4	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	797.4[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,803	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	*
Government expenditure on education (1982 $000,000)	22,598.2	22,512.7	23,082.3	23,180.8	24,031.6	23,208.1	24,122.6	23,581.2
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
– men	21.4	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	*
– women	7.0	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	*
% of population 15 + who are regular cigarette smokers – men	38.6	–	36.7	–	34.0	–	33.1	30.8
– women	30.1	–	28.9	–	28.3	–	27.8	25.8
Government expenditure on health (1982 $000,000)	18,456.1	19,564.9	20,831.2	21,672.2	22,745.3	23,846.0	24,078.1	24,942.0
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
– violent	623	648	666	685	692	714	749	801
– property	5,013	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,660
– homicide	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.0
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programes[1] (1982 $000,000)	91,126.7	95,340.7	97,499.7	104,289.8	110,095.4	111,700.9	114,838.2	116,467.9
– as a % of total expenditures	59.3	57.7	57.3	58.1	59.9	58.4	58.4	58.9
– as a % of GDP	24.0	24.7	24.7	27.8	28.7	27.8	27.7	27.5
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,332.9	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,145.4	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,547.6	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) – annual % change	+3.9	+1.5	+3.7	-3.3	+3.1	+5.5	+4.0	+3.1
Annual inflation rate (%)	9.2	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1
Urban housing starts	151,717	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863

- Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.
[1] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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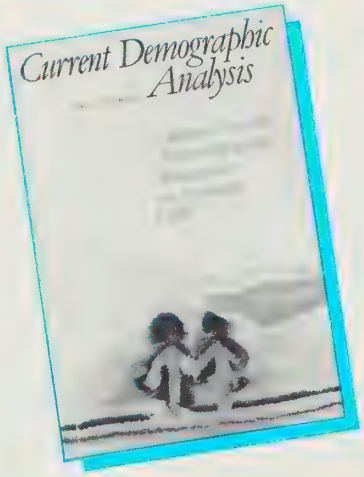
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93-933	1981 Census of Canada, Population: Language, Ethnic Origin, Religion, Place of Birth, Schooling — Alberta	$7.50	$9.00
99-933	Canada's Lone-Parent Families	$5.50	$6.60
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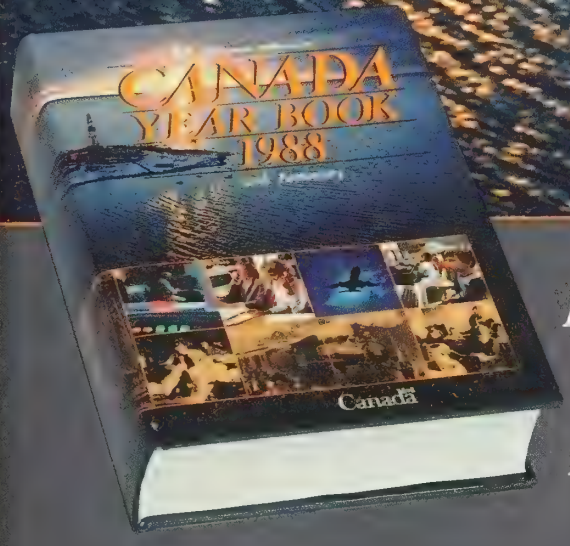
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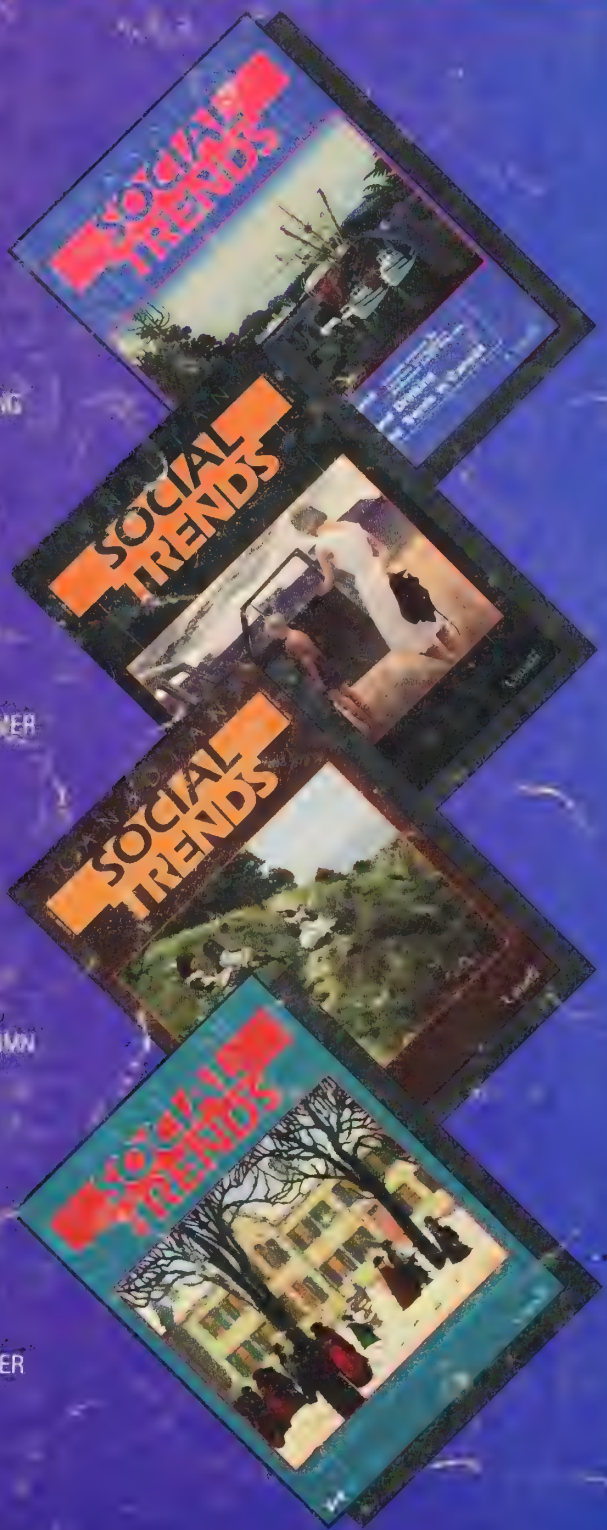
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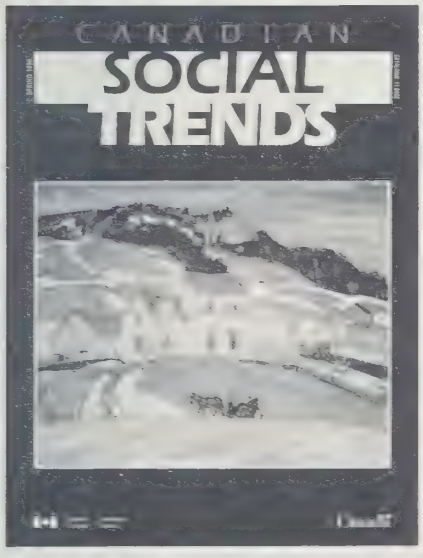
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Early Spring was painted by A.Y. Jackson in 1923 (oil on canvas 54 × 66.7 cm).

About the artist:

Alexander Y. Jackson (1882-1974) was an original member of the Group of Seven artists. Born in Montreal, Quebec, he began his artistic career with a Montreal lithographing company. In his early twenties, he travelled the world studying art and developing his talent. It was during this period that he developed an impressionist style which can be seen throughout his later works. He was a war artist during the First World War, after which he travelled extensively across Canada capturing the essence of the Canadian wilderness on his canvasses. It is for these works that he is best known.

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THERAPEUTIC ABORTION IN CANADA

by Betsy MacKenzie

Editor's note: *In January 1988, a Supreme Court decision found that the abortion provisions of the Criminal Code were in violation of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms and were accordingly struck down.*

The therapeutic abortion rate in Canada increased throughout the 1970s and peaked in 1979. A steady decline thereafter brought the 1985 rate down to the level of a decade earlier. In general, the rate of legal abortions in Canada has been lower than in most other industrialized countries.

Therapeutic abortion rates varied considerably across Canada, with residents of the Northwest Territories and British Columbia experiencing the highest levels in 1985, and residents of Prince Edward Island and New Brunswick, the lowest. During the 1975-1985 period, therapeutic abortion rates for women under age 25 were higher than for women aged 25 and over. A rising majority of women obtaining therapeutic abortions were single. The trend was toward earlier abortions with most occurring before 13 weeks' gestation.

Canadian Hospitals Performing Therapeutic Abortions

Therapeutic abortion committees were established at 250 Canadian hospitals in 1985, down from 274 in 1975.

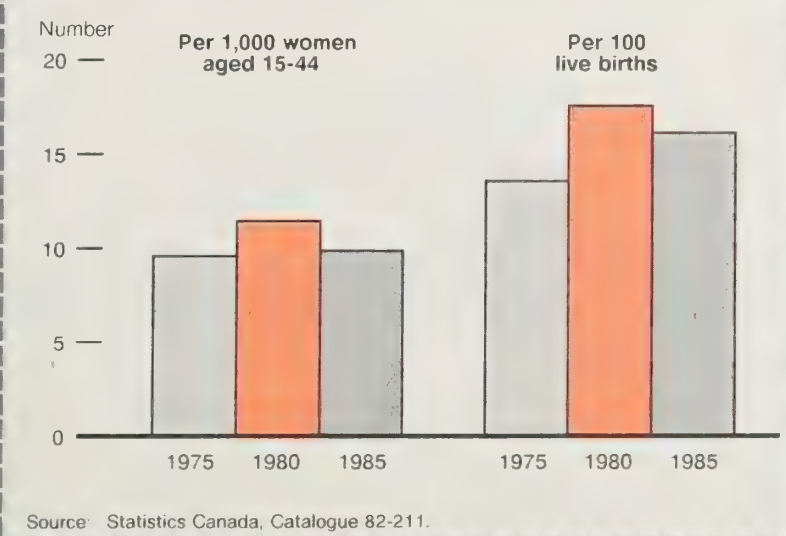
In each province, the hospitals that provided the majority of abortions are in major cities or metropolitan areas. During 1985, three-quarters (74%) of therapeutic abortions were performed in just 15% of the hospitals with committees. In addition to women in the immediate vicinity, hospitals with committees served women coming from rural areas with no hospital, and those from centres without committees. In 1985, 15% of Canadian hospitals with committees performed no therapeutic abortions.

Provincial distribution of hospitals with therapeutic abortion committees, 1975 and 1985

	1975	1985
Canada	**274**	**250**
Newfoundland	6	5
Prince Edward Island	2	1
Nova Scotia	13	11
New Brunswick	8	8
Quebec	35	38
Ontario	110	95
Manitoba	9	8
Saskatchewan	10	8
Alberta	25	22
British Columbia	54	52
Yukon	1	1
Northwest Territories	1	1

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-211.

Therapeutic abortion rates, 1975, 1980 and 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-211.

Trends in Therapeutic Abortion

The therapeutic abortion rate per 1,000 women aged 15-44 rose from 9.6 in 1975 to a high of 11.6 in 1979. By 1985, the rate had fallen to 9.9, close to what it had been in 1975.

Expressed per 100 live births, therapeutic abortions went from 13.7 in 1975 to almost 18 in the late seventies and early eighties, but by 1985, had dropped to 16.2.

The annual number of therapeutic abortions performed in Canadian hospitals with therapeutic abortion committees rose from 49,390 in 1975 to 66,319 in 1982. Numbers then declined to 60,956 in 1985.

Provincial Differences

Therapeutic abortion rates varied widely among the provinces and territories. Between 1975 and 1985, rates were highest for residents of British Columbia, the two territories, Alberta, and Ontario. Residents of Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, and Newfoundland had the lowest rates.

Most provinces and territories mirrored the rise and fall in national therapeutic abortion rates between 1975 and 1985. The exceptions were Manitoba and the Northwest Territories, where 1985 rates were higher than in any other year since 1975, and Prince Edward Island, which experienced an almost steady decline.

Canada's Abortion Law, 1969-1988

This article refers to therapeutic (legal) abortions authorized under Section 18 of the Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1969, which came into force on August 26, 1969. This law permitted pregnancy termination only in accredited and/or approved hospitals and only if a hospital therapeutic abortion committee of not fewer than three physicians, appointed by the hospital board, certified by a majority of its members that continuation of the pregnancy "would or would be likely" to endanger the life or health of the pregnant woman.

Age Differences

Throughout the 1975-1985 period, the incidence of therapeutic abortion was higher among women younger than age 25. The 1985 rates per 1,000 women were 14.5 and 17.3 among 15-19-year-olds and 20-24-year-olds, respectively. Rates declined in each successive age group. For example, the rate for women aged 25-29 was 11.2, but for the 40-44 age group, just 1.6.

Abortion rates for each age group under 35 followed the rise and fall of the national trend between 1975 and 1985, and ended the period at a somewhat higher level than at the beginning. The rate for 20-24-year-olds showed the greatest overall increase: from 13.8 to 17.3 per 1,000 women. In contrast, rates for the 35 and over age group dropped almost steadily and were lower in 1985 than in 1975.

Higher Percentage of Single Women

Single women accounted for a rising percentage of therapeutic abortions during the 1975-1985 period. The percentage of all therapeutic abortions that were obtained by single women rose from 58% to 67%. At the same time, the proportion of married women fell from 31% to 22%, and those performed on women who were divorced, separated, widowed

Interpretation of Canadian Therapeutic Abortion Data

Information on therapeutic abortions in this article was collected in hospitals and transmitted to Statistics Canada mostly through provincial health departments. These numbers exclude abortions obtained by Canadian women in non-hospital settings or in other countries. Nevertheless, Statistics Canada also collects similar information from border states in the U.S.A., which showed that 2,798 Canadians obtained legal abortions there in 1985. Pregnancies terminated by methods such as the "morning after pill" are excluded.

Discrepancies in the definition of abortion affect data collection. While the Criminal Code did not stipulate a gestational time limit, provincial regulations required that terminations after 20 weeks be recorded as a stillbirth. Consequently, therapeutic abortions were under-reported.

Therapeutic abortions performed by Canadian hospitals with therapeutic abortion committees, 1985

	Percent of 250 hospitals	Percent of 60,956[1] therapeutic abortions
Abortion range	%	
0 abortions	14.6	-
1- 20 abortions	23.3	0.9
21- 50 abortions	10.3	1.4
51-100 abortions	10.3	3.1
101-200 abortions	10.7	6.6
201-400 abortions	11.9	13.6
400+ abortions	15.4	74.4
Not reported	3.6	-

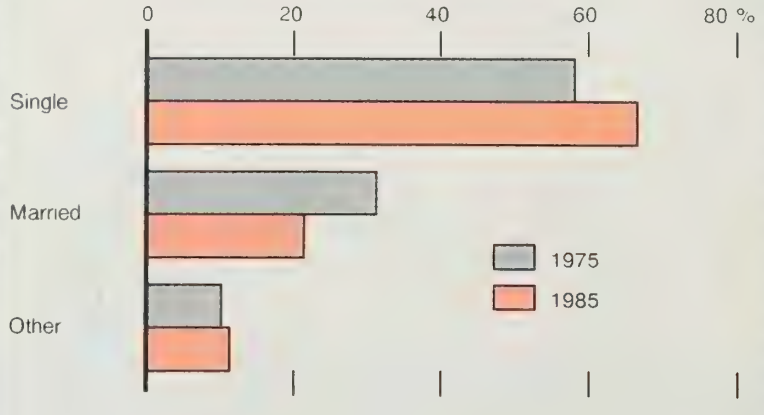
[1] Includes foreign residents and residence not reported.
- nil or zero
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-211.

Therapeutic abortions, 1975-1985

Year	Number of therapeutic abortions[1]	Therapeutic abortions per 1,000 women aged 15-44[2]	Therapeutic abortions per 100 live births[2]
1975	49,390	9.6	13.7
1976	54,536	10.3	15.1
1977	57,620	10.6	15.9
1978	62,351	11.3	17.4
1979	65,135	11.6	17.8
1980	65,855	11.5	17.7
1981	65,127	11.1	17.5
1982	66,319	11.1	17.8
1983	61,800	10.2	16.5
1984	62,291	10.2	16.5
1985	60,956	9.9	16.2

[1] Includes foreign residents and residence not reported, together totalling 0.2% or less of all therapeutic abortions.
[2] Based on Canadian residents only.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-211.

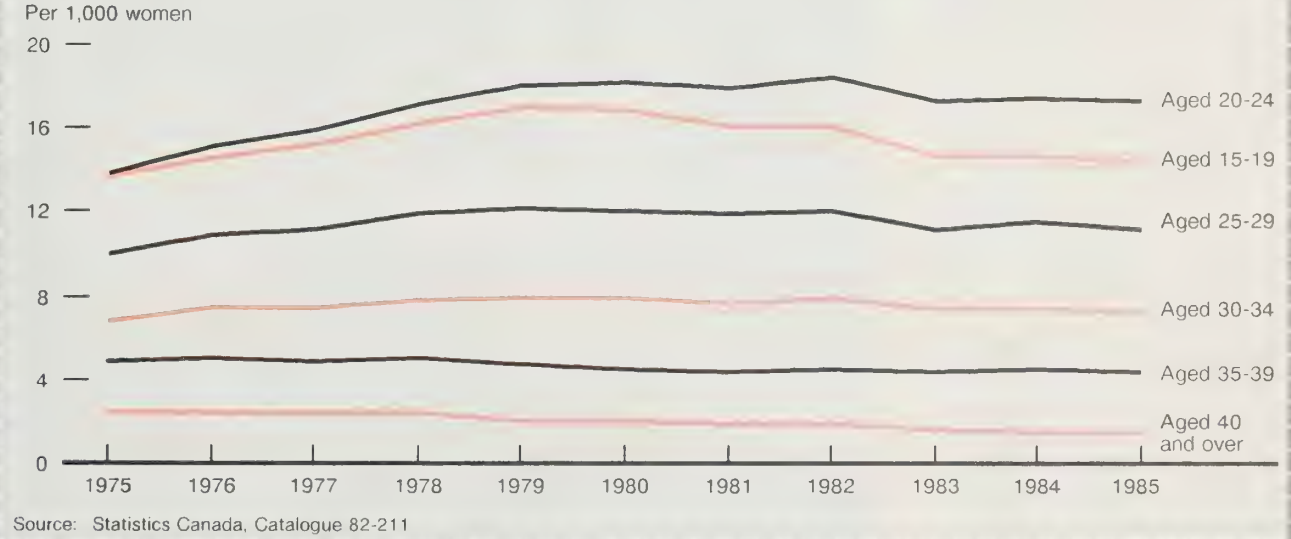
Percentage distribution of women obtaining therapeutic abortions, by marital status, 1975 and 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-211.



Therapeutic abortion rate, by age, 1975 to 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-211

or living common-law remained almost unchanged, increasing slightly from 10% to 11%.

A Trend Toward Earlier Therapeutic Abortions

While the majority of therapeutic abortions continued to be performed between 9 and 12 weeks' gestation, the trend between 1975 and 1985 was toward earlier pregnancy terminations. The proportion occurring before 9 weeks rose from 22% in 1975 to 32% in 1985. Those performed between 9 and 12 weeks declined slightly from 59% to 57% of the total, while those performed after 12 weeks fell more sharply from 19% to 11%.

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JOB DISPLACEMENT

This article has been adapted from the G. Picot and T. Wannell report *Workers Experiencing Permanent Job Loss*

Plant closures and relocations, workload and shift reductions, and the failure of businesses of the self-employed meant that almost half a million long-term workers lost their jobs during the years 1981 to 1984. This period included the 1981-82 recession, which undoubtedly contributed to the lay-offs. By 1986, about two-thirds (63%) of these displaced workers had new jobs. However, 17% had left the labour force, and 20% were unemployed, some of whom had not worked since their initial job loss. Those who were re-employed had spent, on average, half a year looking for work and generally earned less than on their old jobs.

Reason for Job Loss

For the 469,000 workers displaced during the 1981-1984 period, the most frequent reason for losing their jobs was plant closure or relocation (44%). Reductions in workload accounted for a further 34%, while elimination of a position or shift displaced another 9%. Business failures among the self-employed caused 2% of job losses, and other reasons made up the remainder.

Characteristics of Displaced Workers

A "hazard ratio" is used to assess which groups were most likely to be displaced. It is calculated by dividing the percentage of displaced workers with certain characteristics by the percentage of the labour force with the same characteristics in January 1986. A hazard ratio of 1.0 for any group means that its incidence of job loss equalled the national average. A value above 1.0 indicates a group with a higher-than-average chance of job loss, while the opposite holds for values below 1.0.

Among the provinces, Alberta and British Columbia had the highest hazard



ratios: 1.4 and 1.3, respectively. Two other provinces, Quebec and Newfoundland, also had high ratios (both 1.2). Saskatchewan's ratio was lowest at just 0.6.

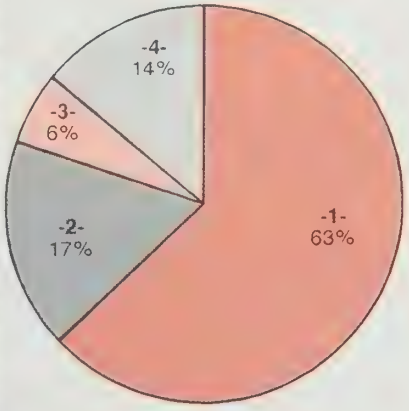
Men were slightly more likely than women to be laid off. The male hazard ratio was 1.1 compared with 0.8 for women. Much of the discrepancy resulted from the different occupations and industries in which men and women were employed. Industries with a largely male workforce, such as construction and manufacturing, were hardest hit during the recession.

The 25-34 age group had the highest hazard ratio – 1.3. On the other hand, slightly older workers in the 35-44 age range were least likely to lose their jobs, with a hazard ratio of just 0.8.

Education tended to reduce the risk of job loss. Postsecondary graduates were about half as likely to be displaced as people who had not finished high school (0.6 versus 1.2). In fact, hazard ratios were higher than average for all levels of education below postsecondary graduation.

With a hazard ratio of 2.7, workers in the construction industry had the greatest

Labour force status of displaced workers, January 1986



-1- Re-employed

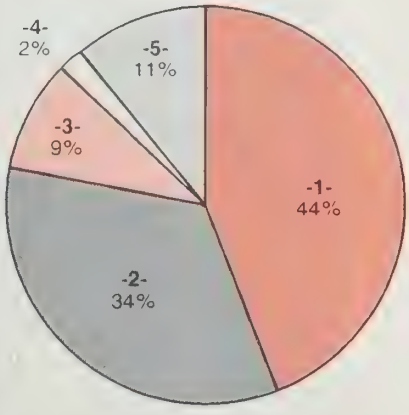
-2- Left labour force

-3- Unemployed since displacement

-4- Unemployed, but had held job since displacement

Source: Statistics Canada, Social and Economic Studies Division, Displaced Workers Survey, January 1986.

Reasons for job displacement



-1- Closure or relocation of plant

-2- Workload reduction

-3- Loss of position or shift

-4- Failure of self-owned business

-5- Other

Source: Statistics Canada, Social and Economic Studies Division, Displaced Workers Survey, January 1986

Displacement hazard ratios, by selected characteristics

Characteristics	Hazard ratio[1]
Total	**1.0**
Sex	
Men	1.1
Women	0.8
Age group	
20-24	1.0
25-34	1.3
35-44	0.8
45-54	0.9
55 and over	1.0
Education	
Less than high school	1.3
Some high school	1.2
High school graduate	1.1
Some postsecondary	1.2
Postsecondary graduate	0.6
Industry	
Construction	2.7
Manufacturing	1.8
Trade and finance	1.0
Agriculture and primary	0.9
Transportation, communications, utilities	0.6
Public administration, services	0.5
Occupation	
Blue collar	1.4
White collar	0.8
Managerial/professional	0.8
Job tenure	
3 years	3.2
4-5 years	1.4
6-10 years	0.8
More than 10 years	0.5
Province	
Newfoundland	1.2
Prince Edward Island	0.7
Nova Scotia	0.8
New Brunswick	1.0
Quebec	1.2
Ontario	0.8
Manitoba	0.7
Saskatchewan	0.6
Alberta	1.4
British Columbia	1.3

[1] A hazard ratio greater than 1.0 indicates higher-than-average probability of displacement, while the opposite holds for hazard ratios less than 1.0.

Source: Statistics Canada, Social and Economic Studies Division, Displaced Workers Survey, January 1986



chance of job loss. Manufacturing workers, at 1.8, were next most likely to be displaced. The ratio dropped to 1.0 in trade and financial industries, 0.9 in agriculture and primary industries, and 0.6 in transportation, communications and utilities. Least likely to lose their jobs were workers in public administration and in services,[1] whose hazard ratio was just 0.5.

Chances of displacement were higher in blue collar occupations than in managerial/professional or white collar jobs. The hazard ratio for blue collar workers was 1.4, compared with 0.8 for both the managerial/professional and white collar categories (clerical, sales, and services).

The less time workers had been with their employer, the greater were their chances of displacement. The hazard ratio for workers with three years' service was 3.2. As length of service increased, the ratio fell steadily, bottoming out at 0.5 among workers with more than ten years.

Retraining

Only a minority of workers, 70,000 or 15%, undertook some form of retraining after they were laid off. Over half of them participated in part-time as opposed to full-time programs.

Displaced male and female workers were about equally likely to retrain – 15% of men and 16% of women.

The incidence of retraining was highest in younger age groups. Almost 22% of displaced workers under age 25 enrolled in some kind of program, but at age 55 and over, the participation rate was just 5%.

Higher levels of education appear to predispose displaced workers to retrain. More than one-quarter (28%) who were postsecondary graduates enrolled in a program. The participation rate dropped

[1] Education and related services, health and welfare services, consumer services, services to business management, and miscellaneous services.

For the purposes of this article, occupations are grouped into three categories: managerial/professional, white collar, and blue collar.

The managerial/professional category covers: management and administration; natural sciences, engineering and mathematics; social sciences; religion; teaching; medicine and health; artistic, literary and performing arts fields; and sport and recreation.

White collar occupations are those in clerical, sales, and service fields.

The blue collar category is comprised of occupations in: primary industries such as farming, fishing, forestry and mining; processing; machining; product fabricating, assembling and repairing; construction; and equipment operating.

to 18% for those with some postsecondary education and to 15% for workers with a high school diploma. Just 4% of displaced workers with less than high school graduation retrained.

Workers displaced from manufacturing and agriculture and primary industries had the highest training participation rate: 19%. About 16% of transport workers and 15% of service industry and construction workers enrolled. Those who lost jobs in the communications/utilities and trade/financial industries had the lowest participation rate: 11%.

Participation in retraining did not vary substantially among the three main occupational groups. About 17% of managers/professionals retrained, very close to the figure of 16% for blue collar and white collar workers.

Moving to Look for Work

The number of displaced workers who moved to find employment was even smaller than the number who retrained. After losing their jobs, 66,000 or 14% of workers moved to find new ones.

Men were about three times more likely than women to move. Just 6% of female displaced workers moved to search for a job, compared with 18% of men.

Age was also an important factor, with younger workers showing a greater tendency to move. Nearly one in five displaced workers under age 35 (19%) moved to look for work. The percentage of movers dropped to 14% among 35-44-year-olds; to 10% for those aged 45-54; and to 7% among displaced workers aged 55 and over.

Education was not as closely associated with the likelihood of moving as were workers' age and sex, although postsecondary graduates were more mobile than some less educated workers. Movers accounted for 18% of displaced postsecondary graduates, compared with 10% of the group with less than a high school education. However, 17% of those with some high school education moved.

Leaving the Labour Force

About 80,000 displaced workers (17% of the total) had left the labour force by January 1986.

Age appears to have been the primary factor in the decision, as 44% of displaced workers over age 54 left the labour force. Those under age 25 were the next most likely to drop out, but just 19% did so. Workers in the 25-54 age range were least likely to be leavers (12%).

Other groups with above-average proportions leaving the labour force were women, people with comparatively little education, white collar workers, and residents of the Atlantic region and British Columbia.

Long-term Unemployed

In January 1986, 94,000 displaced workers were unemployed; about 30,000 of them, or 6% of the total, had not worked since their original job loss. Groups markedly overrepresented among these long-term unemployed included people aged 45 and over, those with only an elementary school education, former service workers, and Quebec residents.

Re-employed Displaced Workers

Although the majority of displaced workers (63%) had found jobs by 1986, the percentage re-employed varied considerably in different regions. About 73% of displaced workers in Ontario and the three Prairie provinces had new jobs. By contrast, in the Atlantic region, Quebec, and British Columbia, the proportions re-employed were in the 52% to 55% range.

Men were more likely than women to be re-employed, and workers aged 25-44 had more success in the job market than those who were younger or older. The re-employed also tended to be better-educated than workers who had left the labour force or were unemployed. By occupation, people displaced from managerial/professional positions were the most likely to find new jobs, followed by blue collar and then white collar workers.

Duration of Job Search

Displaced workers who found new jobs had searched for an average of 27 weeks. However, close to four out of ten (38%) looked for 6 months to a year, and an

Retraining and moving after job loss, by sex, age and education

Characteristic	Retrained after job loss	Moved after job loss	Total number of displaced workers
	%		000s
Total	**15**	**14**	**469**
Sex			
Men	15	18	322
Women	16	6*	147
Age group			
20-24	22*	18*	27
25-34	18	19	174
35-44	15*	14*	113
45-54	15*	10*	86
55 and over	5*	7	69
Education			
Less than high school	4*	10*	78
Some high school	12*	17	118
High school graduate	15	14	142
Some postsecondary	18*	12*	44
Postsecondary graduate	28	18*	87

* Data are subject to considerable sampling variability and should be used with caution.
Source: Statistics Canada, Social and Economic Studies Division, Displaced Workers Survey, January 1986.

The Displaced Workers Survey was a supplement to Statistics Canada's Labour Force Survey in January 1986. Although 1.5 million workers who had lost jobs from 1981 to 1985 were identified, only those with at least three years' service with the same employer were the subject of analysis. Workers who were displaced in 1985 were also excluded, as not enough time had passed to consider the job loss permanent. This definition left a group of displaced workers numbering nearly half a million.



additional 12% required more than a year. On the other hand, for some the search was relatively brief; 26% found work in 3 weeks or less.

Workers in the Atlantic region had the longest average job searches (35 weeks), while those in Manitoba and Saskatchewan looked for a relatively short time (19 weeks). The number of weeks seeking employment was also above average in Quebec (31) and British Columbia (29), but somewhat below average in Alberta (23) and Ontario (24).

Job searches were slightly longer for men than for women, averaging 28 weeks and 25 weeks, respectively. Older workers generally needed more time than younger ones. Average job searches ranged from 21 weeks for those under age 25, to 34 weeks for the 55 and over age group.

Workers with the least education had the longest job searches. Those with less than high school looked an average of 35 weeks, compared with 28 weeks for high school graduates, and 21 weeks for workers with at least some education past high school.

Blue collar workers generally searched longer than those displaced from managerial/professional or white collar occupations. Blue collar workers took an average of 31 weeks to find new jobs, compared with 23 weeks for the managerial/professional category and 24 weeks for white collar workers.

Redistribution among Industries and Occupations

Job displacement and re-employment substantially shifted the industrial and occupational distribution of these workers, with the majority changing either industry or occupation. This redistribution can be roughly assessed by calculating net gains and losses, that is, the number of displaced workers who found new jobs in a specific industry or occupation minus the number originally displaced from the same industry or occupation.

Manufacturing industries lost the largest number of employees through displacement: a net loss of 47,000. The construction industry was also a net loser, but at 4,000 workers, the loss was much smaller.

On the other hand, services posted the largest net gain of displaced workers: 23,000. Public administration also absorbed a considerable number, gaining 16,000. The transportation/communications/utilities and trade/financial industries also gained, together employing 11,000 more displaced workers than had been laid off from those industries over the 1981-1984 period. In the agriculture and primary industries category, lay-offs almost equalled the number of displaced workers who found new jobs.

Displaced workers tended to shift into white collar occupations at the expense of the blue collar and managerial/professional categories. The number employed in white collar jobs increased by 21,000, while the number in managerial/professional positions fell by 11,000, and in blue collar fields, by 10,000.

Salary Changes between Lost and New Job[2]

A majority (56%) of re-employed workers reported that their new job paid less than their old one. Their average loss was $152 (-36%) a week. For those (44%) whose salaries increased, the mean gain was $61 (18%) a week. The differences average out to a net weekly loss of $58 (-16%), the equivalent of about $3,000 a year. Wage increases among the minority who found higher-paying positions could not compensate for the sharp cuts suffered by the larger number who accepted lower-paying jobs.

Almost equal proportions of men and

[2] Salary changes do not account for the effects of inflation over the four years during which workers were displaced and re-employed.

women took a drop in pay between the old and new jobs: 57% and 54%, respectively. The frequency of pay loss varied more with age. The proportion of losers was highest among workers aged 45 and over (more than 60%); people in the 35-44 age group were least likely to be losers (53%).

Education proved to be somewhat of a buffer against pay losses. Just 40% of postsecondary graduates were in jobs paying less than their lost jobs, compared with 59% of high school graduates, and 65% of workers who had not attended high school. But as a group, not even postsecondary graduates had an overall gain in pay.

In general, the likelihood of a salary decline increased with the length of service on the lost job. The proportion reporting lower salaries rose from 50% for workers with four or five years' service to 62% for those with more than ten years. The proportion of workers with three years' service who had a salary loss was also relatively high (56%).

Displaced workers with long intervals between jobs generally settled for lower-paying positions than did those who found work quickly. Just 38% of workers who found jobs in three weeks or less took a pay cut, compared with 73% of those who spent more than a year out of work.

Workers displaced from part-time jobs were the only large group with substantial pay increases. This was because more than three-quarters of those who were re-employed switched to full-time jobs. The result was 83% earning more on their new jobs.

On the other hand, about 16% of people re-employed from full-time jobs were working part-time, and more than three-quarters of them were earning less than on their lost jobs.

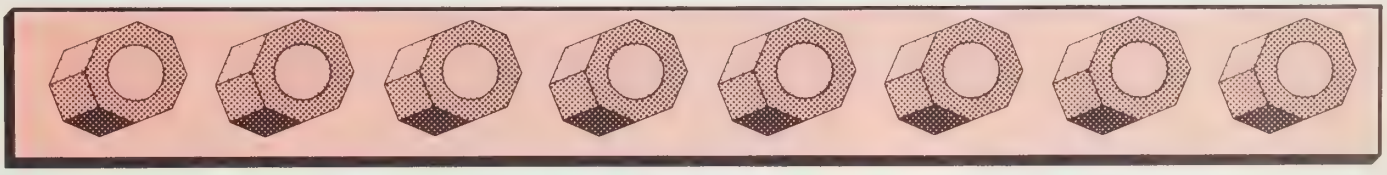
Conclusion

While fortunes varied greatly among individual displaced workers, as a whole, they fared poorly. A large number left the labour force. Those who found new jobs took an average of half a year to secure them and were likely to earn less than on their old jobs. Only a minority retrained or moved after they were laid off.

As well as contributing to these layoffs, the 1981-82 recession affected displaced workers' chances of finding new positions by forcing them into the job market during a period of very high unemployment.

The displacement process had some effect on the distribution of employment, as workers shifted from manufacturing, primary, and construction industries into services and public administration.

G. Picot *and* **T. Wannell** *are analysts with the Social and Economic Studies Division, Statistics Canada.*

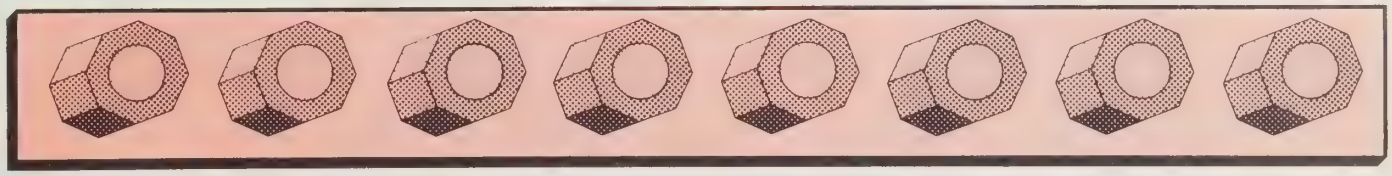


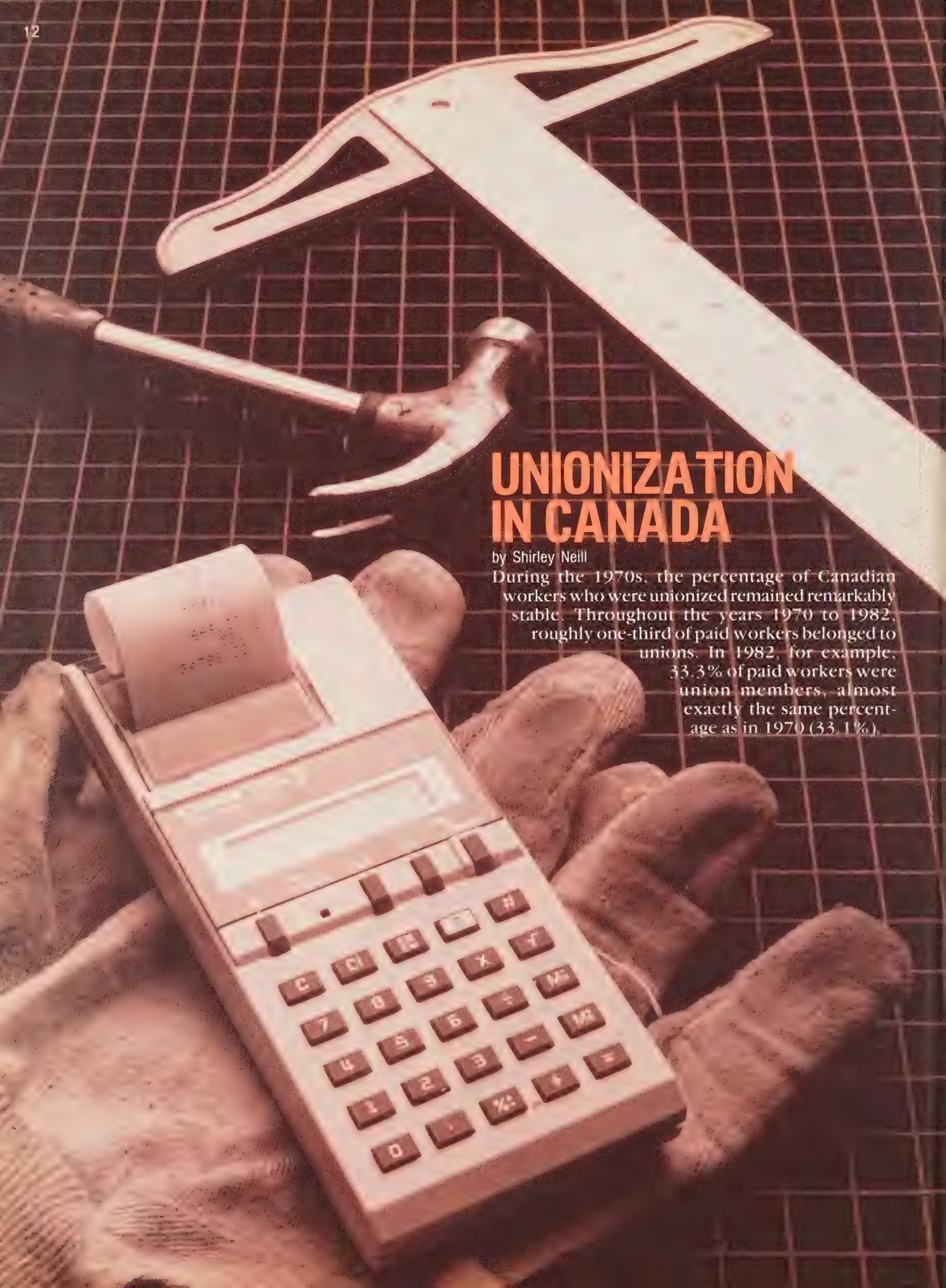
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UNIONIZATION IN CANADA

by Shirley Neill

During the 1970s, the percentage of Canadian workers who were unionized remained remarkably stable. Throughout the years 1970 to 1982, roughly one-third of paid workers belonged to unions. In 1982, for example, 33.3% of paid workers were union members, almost exactly the same percentage as in 1970 (33.1%).

As the size of the total labour force increased, so did the number of Canadians in unions. By 1981, 3.2 million workers were union members, up from 2.3 million in 1970. In 1982, mainly as a result of the overall decline in employment during the recession, total union membership fell to 3.1 million. Union members, however, were less likely than non-members to have lost their jobs in the recessionary period. While the number of employed union members declined 3.3% in 1982, the number of other workers with jobs fell 4.8%.

Canada's unionization trends differ from those in the United States. While the level of unionization in Canada has been stable, union membership has dropped precipitously in the United States. In 1984, just 19% of American workers were unionized, down from close to 30% in 1970.

Union Membership of Men and Women

Overall, the proportion of paid female workers who were union members has increased, while the percentage of unionized paid male workers has declined. The percentage of female workers in unions rose from 21.2% in 1976 to 24.8% in 1982. In the same period, the proportion of unionized male workers fell from 40.5% to 39.2%.

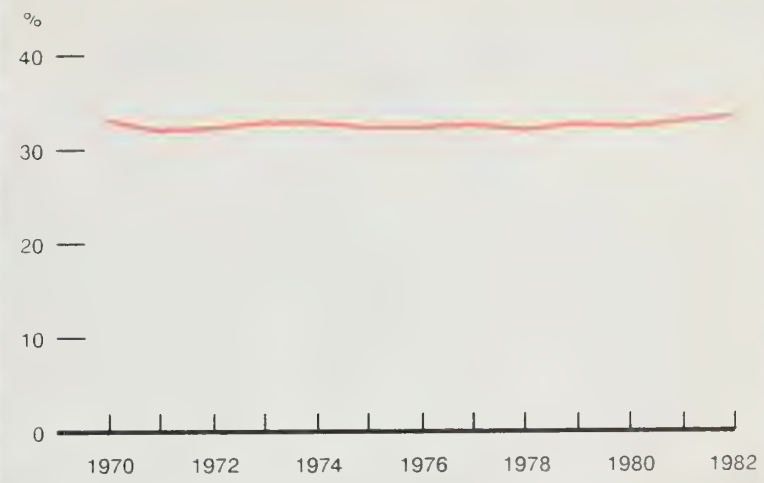
In some ways, comparing unionization rates for women and men understates the growth of female representation in Canadian unions. Between 1970 and 1982, the number of women in unions increased 92%, from just over half a million to just under one million. In the same period, the number of male union members rose only 18%, from 1.8 million to 2.1 million. As a result, in 1982, 32.3% of all union members were women, up from 22.6% in 1970.

Unionization by Industrial Sector

The goods-producing sector of the economy has traditionally had higher unionization rates than the service sector. In 1982, 44.3% of workers in goods-producing industries were unionized, compared with 28.2% of those in services. However, because employment is concentrated in the service sector (72.5% of all paid workers in 1982), the majority of union members are service industry employees. In 1982, 61.5% of union members were working in this sector of the economy.

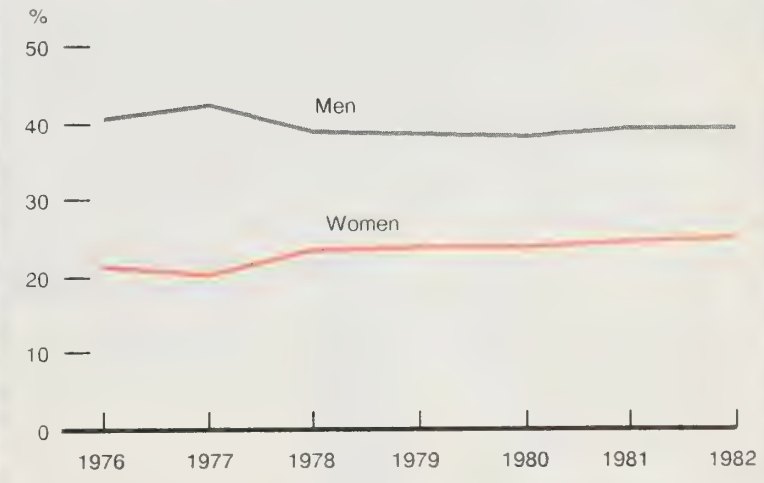
The level of unionization increased slightly in the service sector between 1973 and 1982 and fell slightly in the goods-producing industries. The percentage of service sector workers who were unionized rose from 25.7% to 28.2%, while the proportion of unionized workers in goods-producing industries fell from 45.7% to 44.3%.

Total union membership as a percentage of all paid workers, 1970-1982



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-202.

Total union membership as a percentage of all paid workers, by sex, 1976-1982



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-202

Unionization in 1985

Between 1982 and 1985, another 225 unions were added to Statistics Canada's union survey – Corporations and Labour Unions Returns Act (C.A.L.U.R.A.). As a result, membership totals after 1982 are not comparable with earlier figures. Nonetheless, 1985 figures provide an interesting snapshot of union membership in the post-recession period.

Results from the updated union survey show that in 1985, 3.5 million Canadian workers, or 34% of all paid workers, were union members.

In 1985, 28% of paid female workers were in unions compared with 38% of paid male workers. Also that year, women made up 36% of all union members.

The 1985 unionization rate was higher in goods-producing industries (37%) than in service industries (33%). However,

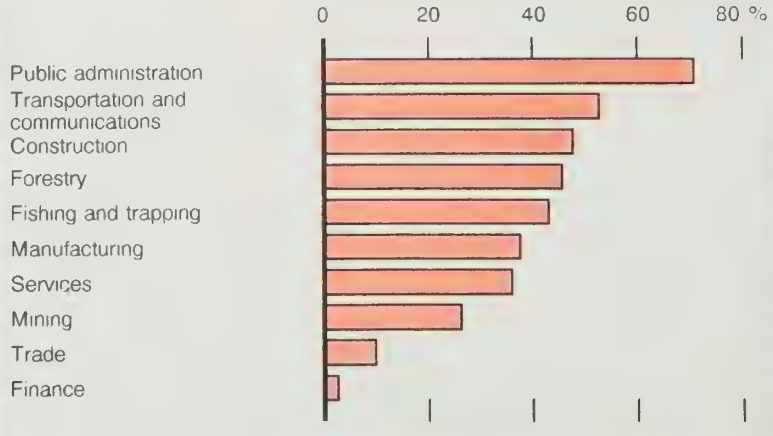


unionization rates among the industries that make up the two industrial sectors varied considerably. In the goods-producing sector, unionization levels ranged from 26% in mining to 48% in construction. Just under 38% of paid workers in manufacturing were unionized.

Variations in unionization rates were even greater in the service sector. Almost three-quarters (71%) of paid workers in public administration and over half (53%) of those in transportation, communications and other utilities were unionized. On the other hand, few workers in either trade (10%) or finance (3%) were union members.

In 1985, Newfoundland and Quebec had the highest percentages of their paid workers in unions, at 40% and 39%, respectively. British Columbia's unionization rate was also high (37%). Alberta (23%) and Prince Edward Island (22%) had the lowest levels of unionization.

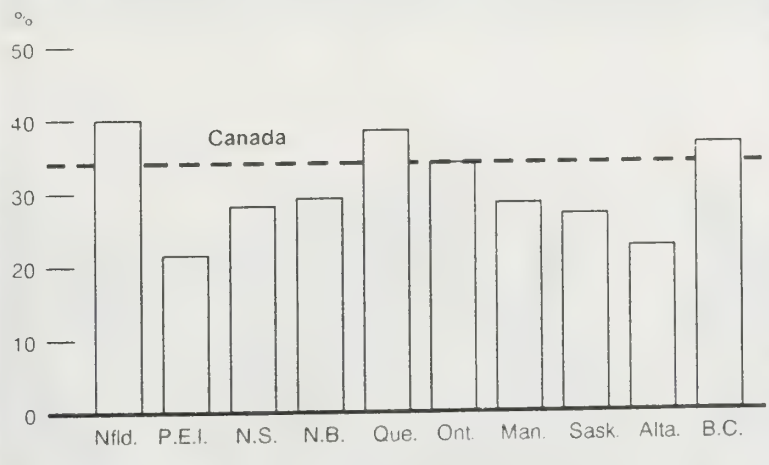
Total union membership as a percentage of all paid workers, by selected industry, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-202.



Total union membership as a percentage of all paid workers, by province, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-202

Wages of Union and Non-union Workers

Generally, unionized workers' average hourly earnings surpass those of their non-unionized counterparts. This comparison should be interpreted with some care, because differences in occupation, industry, and seniority have not been taken into account. In 1984, average hourly earnings of unionized full-time workers were 34% higher than those of full-time non-unionized workers. Union members averaged $12.27 per hour, while non-union workers made $9.17 per hour

The earnings gap was even wider among part-time employees. In 1984, the average hourly wages of unionized part-time workers ($10.68) were close to double those of non-unionized part-timers ($5.84)

Shirley Neill *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends

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WIFE ABUSE

by Holly Johnson



Until recently, little has been known about the extent of wife abuse in Canada. A 1982 survey, however, gives an outline of the circumstances surrounding incidents of abuse and a profile of victims.

The Canadian Urban Victimization Survey estimated that in 1981 about 4 of every 1,000 women (aged 16 and over) in seven cities were assaulted or sexually assaulted by a spouse or former spouse.[1] Separated women were much more likely to be abused than married or divorced women. The abuse was often recurrent. Although weapons were rarely used, most abuse resulted in injury. Yet the evidence suggests that many assaults, even those involving serious injury, were not reported to the police.

Not an Isolated Event

The survey identified an estimated 11,000 incidents of abuse. Half the incidents involved women who were assaulted more than once. An additional 6% of the incidents involved a series of five or more assaults so similar that victims could not recall the details of each episode.

Rates Highest for Separated Women

The risk of assault was highest for women who were separated: the rate was 55 per 1,000 separated women, compared with 18 per 1,000 divorced women, and 2 per 1,000 married women. It is unclear from the survey the extent to which the abuse precipitated the separation or the separation precipitated the abuse.

Women in low-income households experienced the highest rate of assault. The survey recorded assault rates of 8.2 per 1,000 women in households with annual incomes of less than $9,000; 7.7 per 1,000 women in households with incomes from $9,000 to $20,000; and 2.3 per 1,000 women in households with incomes more than $20,000.

[1] Excludes assaults by male friends or partners not described by victims as a spouse or former spouse.

Injury Usually Results

An estimated 75% of the incidents involved physical violence or sexual assault; the remaining 25% were described as threats of violence. Most of the actual physical assaults resulted in injury to the woman, and a substantial proportion of these injuries were serious enough to require medical attention.

The presence of weapons, however, was relatively rare, occurring in 18% of all cases of wife abuse. About 12% of assaults involved bottles, blunt instruments, or other objects not usually considered weapons. Very few incidents (6%) involved guns or knives.[2]

At Home, at Night, on the Weekend

Wife abuse almost always happens in the home: 83% of incidents took place in the victim's residence, and 9% in the residence of another person. An estimated 75% of the assaults occurred in the evening or at night, and almost half (45%) happened on the weekend. About 50% of the assailants were reported to be under the influence of alcohol at the time of the incident.

Fewer than Half Reported to Police

The police were called in fewer than half (44%) of the wife abuse incidents estimated in the survey. Outsiders were unlikely to summon the police; only 9% of abuse cases were reported by someone other than the victim, while 35% were reported by victims themselves.

Injury to the victim did not increase the likelihood that the abuse would be reported to the police. However, the presence of a weapon did: assaults involving weapons were almost twice as likely to be reported (64%) as those not involving weapons (39%).

Lower income women were most likely to call the police. Reporting rates were 44% for victims with household incomes under $9,000 and 53% for those in the $9,000 to $20,000 range, but fell to 26%[2] in the over $20,000 category.

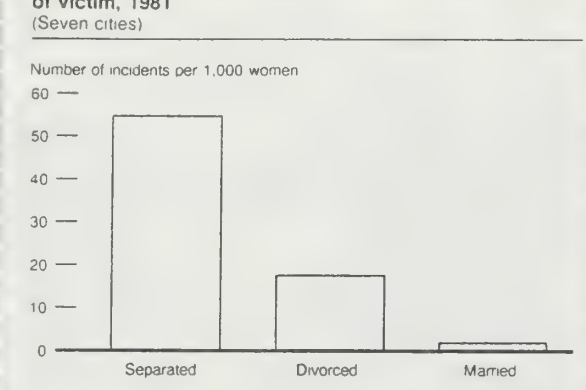


The Canadian Urban Victimization Survey (CUVS) was conducted in 1982 by the Ministry of the Solicitor General and Statistics Canada. Approximately 61,000 residents of seven cities (Vancouver, Edmonton, Winnipeg, Toronto, Montreal, Halifax-Dartmouth, and St. John's) were interviewed by telephone about their experiences of crime and with the criminal justice system.

The survey included questions about sexual and non-sexual assault and the victim's relationship to the offender. Sexual assault refers to rape, attempted rape, and molesting. Non-sexual assault ranges from verbal threats to an attack causing extensive injuries.

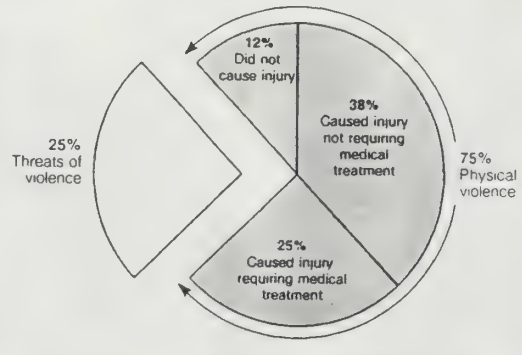
From the interviews, estimates were made for the population aged 16 and over in the seven cities. The sensitive nature of wife abuse means that the true incidence of this crime is likely to be undercounted, even in the CUVS. Nevertheless, the CUVS provides information not available from police records by counting incidents that were not reported, as well as those that were.

Estimated rate of wife abuse, by marital status of victim, 1981
(Seven cities)



Source Ministry of the Solicitor General, Canadian Urban Victimization Survey, 1982

Wife abuse, by type of incident, 1981
(Seven cities)



Source Ministry of the Solicitor General, Canadian Urban Victimization Survey, 1982



Reasons for Not Reporting

Responses to the survey indicate the main reasons why most wife abuse victims did not call the police.[3] Six out of ten (59%) who did not report the assault viewed the incident as a "personal matter and of no concern to the police," and a similar proportion (58%) believed that "the police couldn't do anything about it." Half (52%) cited "fear of revenge" by the offender. Fear of revenge was twice as likely to be a factor for women who were victimized more than once in the year than for those victimized on a single occasion. One-third (35%) did not report the incident because they wanted to protect the offender.

Police Performance

Of the abused women who did report the incident, most (63%) rated the overall performance of the police favourably. Three-quarters (73%) gave the police good or average ratings on being courteous, and 68% rated the police

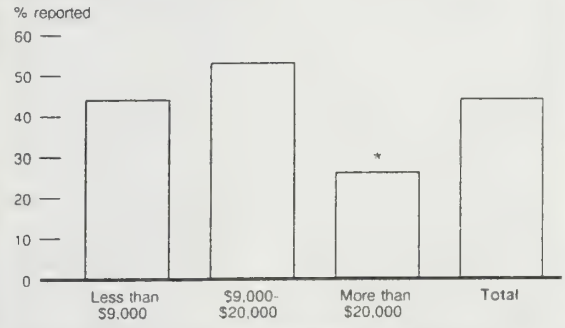
[2] Because the estimates are based on very small samples, caution should be used when interpreting these data.

[3] Victims could state more than one reason for not reporting.

Emergency Shelters

The number of emergency shelters across Canada for abused women and their children continues to grow, increasing fourfold from 71 to 267 between 1979 and 1987. The provinces with the most shelters are Ontario (98), Quebec (70), British Columbia (39), and Alberta (18). Prince Edward Island and the Yukon each have one, and the Northwest Territories has two.

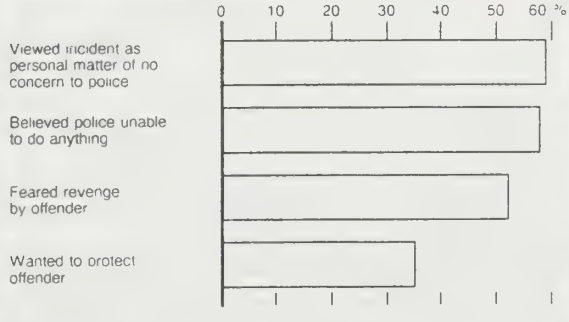
Wife abuse incidents reported to police, by annual household income, 1981
(Seven cities)



* Because estimates are based on very small samples, caution should be used when interpreting these data

Source: Ministry of the Solicitor General, Canadian Urban Victimization Survey, 1982

Main reasons[1] why victims of wife abuse did not call police, 1981
(Seven cities)



[1] Victims could state more than one reason for not calling police

Source: Ministry of the Solicitor General, Canadian Urban Victimization Survey, 1982



positively on responding promptly. A much lower proportion (52%) felt they were adequately informed on the progress of the investigation.

Thirty-four percent of abused women received information about their legal rights and the services available to them. Victims who received such information were more likely than those who had not to rate the police favourably on their handling of the incident.

Other Sources of Support

Many women sought support outside the criminal justice system: 37% turned to friends and neighbours, and 20% sought out a family member.[4] One in four received assistance from a lawyer. Although 80% of victims thought counselling should be available, only 20% received support from a social service agency.

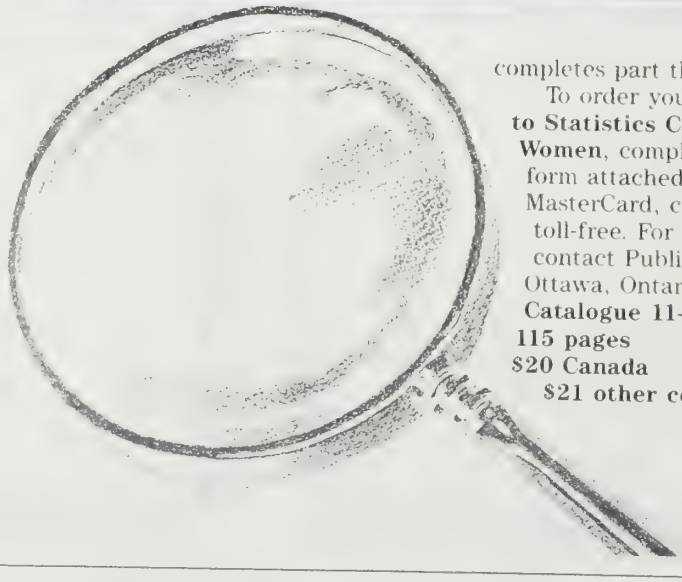
[4] Victims could list more than one source of assistance.

Holly Johnson *is an analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada*

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THE HELP-WANTED INDEX

by Jean-Pierre Maynard and Horst Stiebert

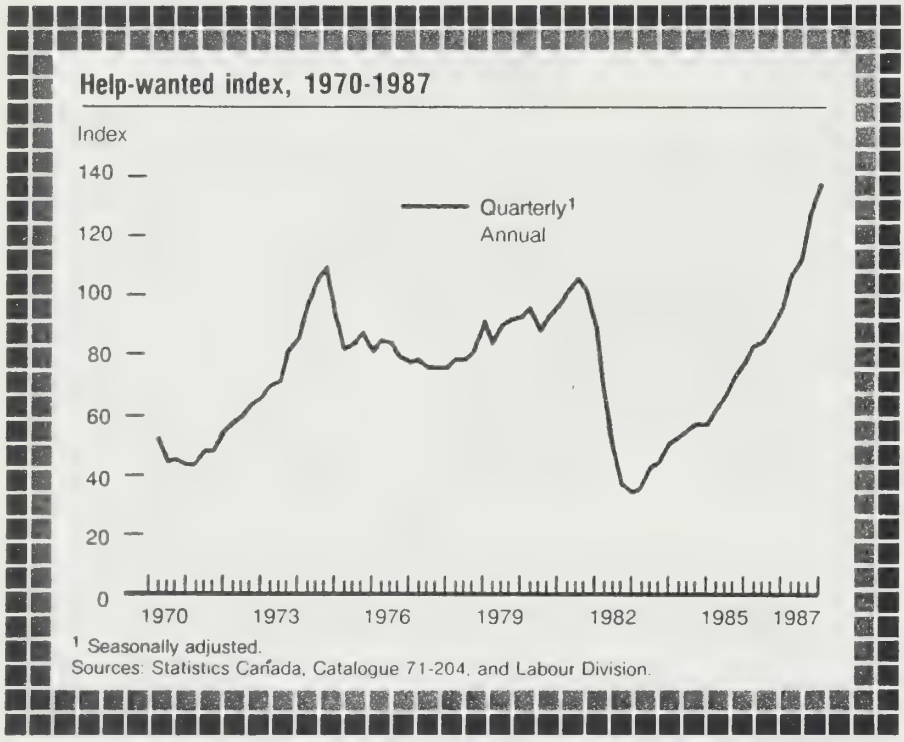


is one of the first stages in the hiring process, changes in the level of help-wanted ads have been shown to be indicators of labour market conditions and employment trends.

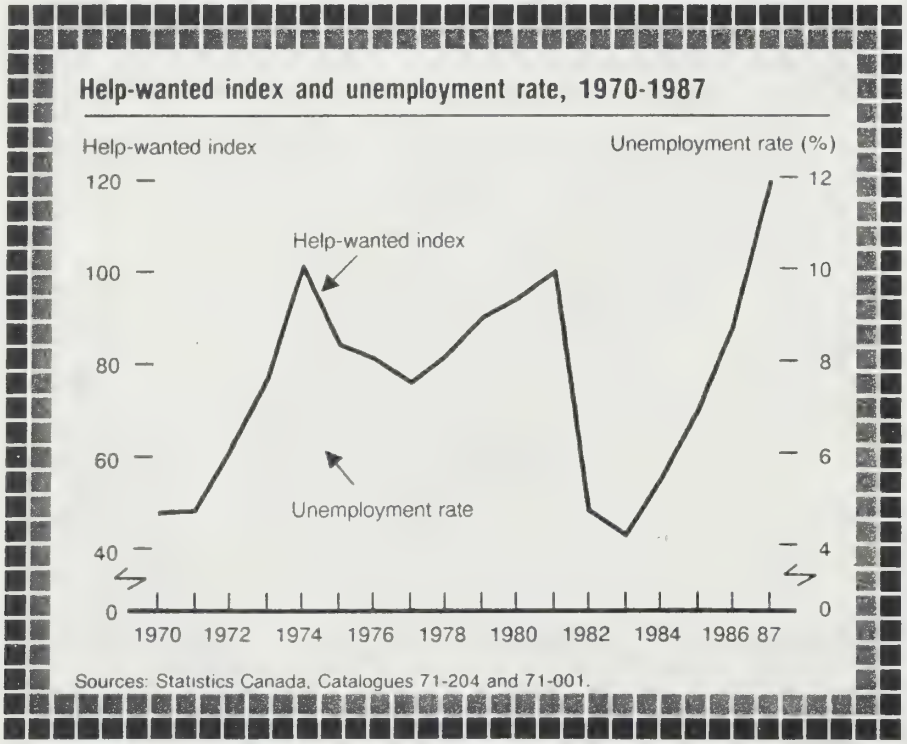
In periods of economic expansion, when relatively few people are out of work and there are more positions to fill, job advertising is frequent. Also, employers who normally rely on other methods to attract applicants may use newspaper ads.

When demand for labour is slack, the reverse is true. Fewer openings require less advertising. Moreover, a larger labour pool may shorten the time ads appear before jobs are filled – or may eliminate the need to advertise altogether.

The **help-wanted index** provides data on the demand for labour. It indicates labour market conditions by measuring the space devoted to help-wanted advertisements in 18 metropolitan newspapers, relative to a base year (currently 1981), which is given a value of 100.



[1] Seasonally adjusted.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-204, and Labour Division.



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-204 and 71-001.

The help-wanted index is closely tied to economic conditions. For instance, the effect of the energy crisis of the mid-1970s was mirrored in a decline of the index from 109 in the third quarter of 1974 to around 76 in the second, third, and fourth quarters of 1977. The index also varied with the severe recession in the early 1980s and subsequent recovery. From 105 in the second quarter of 1981, the index plummetted to 35 in the fourth quarter of 1982. A steady rise since then, however, brought the index to 138 in the fourth quarter of 1987.

Unemployment

An increase in the help-wanted index frequently precedes a decline in the unemployment rate. For instance, an upturn in the index in the second quarter of 1971 was followed by a drop in unemployment during the third quarter. The same thing happened in the third and fourth quarters of 1978.

On the other hand, quarterly declines in the help-wanted index have usually coincided with rising unemployment rates. For example, as the index fell from the second quarter of 1981 until the first quarter of 1983, unemployment increased. An unbroken rise in the index since then was matched by a decline in unemployment from 12.4% to less than 9%.

Employment/Population Ratio

The help-wanted index and the employment/population ratio both measure the

The help-wanted index measures space devoted to job advertisements each month in the classified sections of 18 metropolitan newspapers. These papers are: St. John's *Evening Telegram*, Charlottetown *Guardian*, Halifax *Chronicle-Herald*, Saint John *Telegraph-Journal*, Montreal *Gazette*, Montreal *La Presse*, Quebec *Le Soleil*, Sherbrooke *La Tribune*, Ottawa-Hull *Le Droit*, Toronto *Star*, London *Free Press*, Hamilton *Spectator*, Winnipeg *Free Press*, Regina *Leader-Post*, Edmonton *Journal*, Calgary *Herald*, Vancouver *Sun*, and Victoria *Times-Colonist*.

The column space for any given month is compared to the respective average column space in the base year (1981) and then multiplied by the appropriate metropolitan and regional population weights from the Census of Population to obtain national and regional indexes.

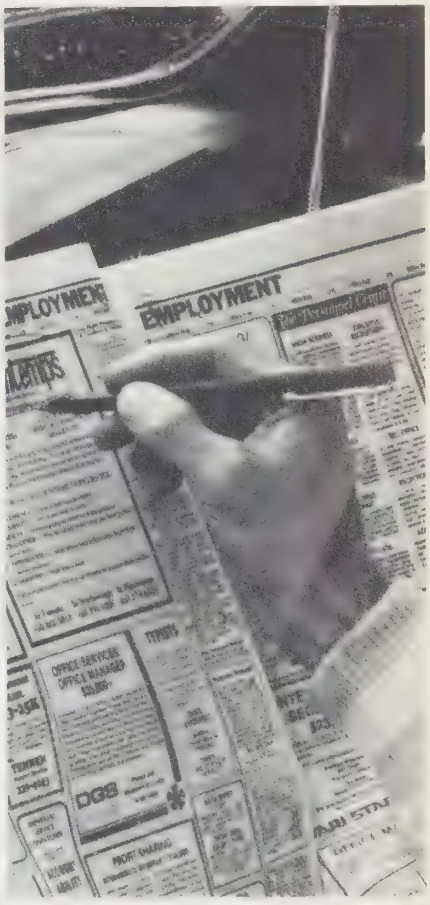
labour market from a demand perspective. The employment/population ratio is the number of people employed, expressed as a percent of the working age population. Throughout the seventies and eighties, the two annual measures have paralleled each other. Both indicators increased from 1970 to 1974, dropped to 1977, and rose until 1981. Since then, the sharp economic downturn in the early eighties and the subsequent recovery were reflected in similar movements by both indicators.

Regional Trends

The help-wanted index also reflects varying levels of labour demand in the regions of Canada. This was particularly evident during the years from 1979 to 1987, which spanned the recession and recovery. Overall, the direction of regional trends followed roughly the same pattern, but turning points in the help-wanted indexes and the extent of declines and gains varied.

The space devoted to job ads started to diminish in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec after 1980. Meanwhile, labour demand remained high in Ontario and the West. Between 1981 and 1982, however, all regional indexes declined sharply.

In 1983, the index rose in Quebec and stayed at about the same level in the Atlantic region. Indexes for the other three regions continued to decrease.



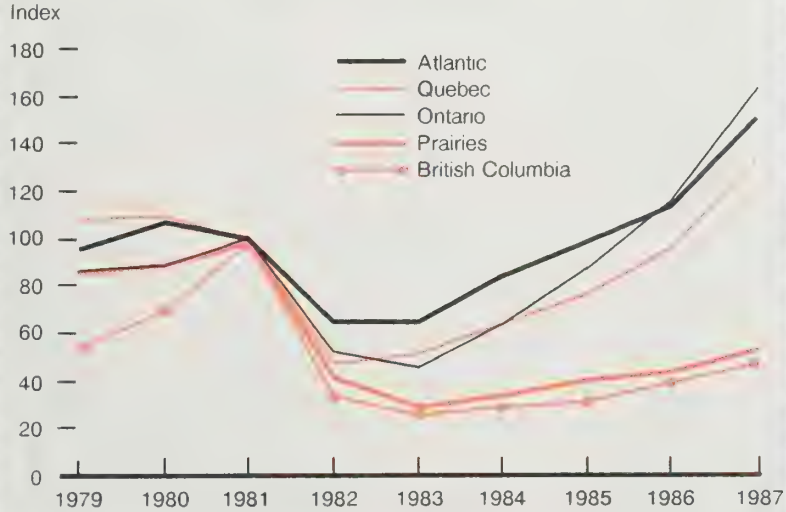
From 1984 on, all regions showed increases. The Atlantic provinces, Quebec, and Ontario had higher help-wanted indexes in 1987 than in 1979. However, levels in the Prairies and British Columbia remained below levels reached in the early eighties.

Help-wanted index and employment/population ratio, 1970-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-204 and 71-001.

Help-wanted index, by region, 1979-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-204.

Conclusion

The help-wanted index is a timely and inexpensive measure of hiring activity which tends to signal turning points in the demand for labour. It has often been an early indicator of a change in labour market trends and closely corresponds to two other indicators of the relationship between workers and jobs, the unemployment rate and the employment/population ratio.

Jean-Pierre Maynard *and* **Horst Stiebert** *are analysts with the Labour Division, Statistics Canada.*

1986 CENSUS HIGHLIGHTS

MARITAL STATUS

by Mary Sue Devereaux

Although five years is a relatively short time for substantial population changes to occur, results from the 1986 Census show continuing shifts in the marital status of Canadians since the last count in 1981. The numbers who were divorced, separated, or widowed increased at a faster pace than did the married and single populations.

Census figures refer only to marital status when the count was taken. Therefore, these statistics do not indicate how many people have ever been divorced, separated, or widowed at some time in the past. For instance, since most divorced people eventually remarry, the number ever divorced would be much larger. The same applies to the separated and widowed populations, many of whom find new partners.

The currently divorced population, relatively small but fast-growing, increased 38% from 500,000 in 1981 to 690,000 in 1986. The separated and widowed populations ranked next in terms of growth, but with increases of 10% and 8%, were well below the rate for divorced people. The number in the separated category rose from 470,000 to 518,000, and the number of widows and widowers went from 1.16 million to 1.25 million.

The slowest-growing marital category was the single (never married) group, which rose just 3.2% from 5.3 million to 5.4 million. The increase in the number of married people was not much greater: a 4.8% rise from 11.5 million to 12.0 million.

Marital status reflects age and life cycle stage. For example, divorce and separation are most prevalent in the 35-44 and 45-54 age groups, both of which increased at a relatively fast rate and thereby contributed to the rapid growth of these two marital categories. Single people, on the other hand, are most likely to be in the 15-24 age group. The 10% decline in the size of this age group from 1981 to 1986 meant that slow growth of the single population was not surprising.

The differences in rates of growth between 1981 and 1986 were not large enough to significantly alter the proportion of the total population in each marital status. The 1986 Census recorded that 60.4% of adults were married; 27.2% single; 6.3% widowed; 3.5% divorced; and 2.6% separated. Slight increases in



the proportions who were divorced, separated, or widowed were made at the expense of the single and married categories.

A rising number of Canadians are living as husband and wife outside formal marriage. Since 1981, the number of reported common-law unions increased 38%. In 1986, 8% of all couples (about 487,000) reported their union was not based on a legal marriage, up from 6% or about 352,000 couples in 1981.

Overall, larger proportions of men than women were single or married; smaller proportions were divorced, separated, or widowed. The most obvious differences between men and women were the percentages who were single or widowed. Almost a third (31%) of men were single compared with fewer than a quarter (24%) of women. On the other hand, more than 10% of women were widowed, but just 2% of men.

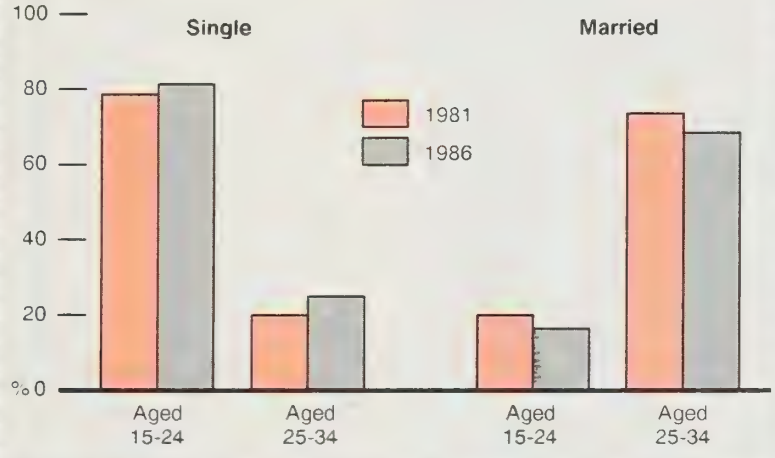
While shifts in the marital status of the total population between 1981 and 1986 were relatively minor, changes in individual age groups signal continuing trends in marriage patterns and family life.

[illegible] aged 15 and over, by marital status, 1981 and 1986

Marital status	1981	1986	% change 1981-1986
Total population aged 15 and over	18,862,085	19,917,365	5.6
Single	5,255,110	5,425,290	3.2
Married	11,478,715	12,033,670	4.8
Separated	470,455	517,530	10.0
Divorced	500,135	690,490	38.1
Widowed	1,157,670	1,250,395	8.0

Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 and 1986 Census of Canada.

Single and married people as a proportion of young adults, 1981 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 and 1986 Census of Canada.

Single

The proportion of single people increased in all age groups under 45, particularly among young adults who are tending to marry at later ages. For example, more than 82% of 15-24-year-olds were single in 1986, a rise from about 79% in 1981. For 25-34-year-olds, the increase was from around 20% to 25%.

By contrast, among age groups 45 and over, the proportion of single people declined slightly between 1981 and 1986.

The percentage of single men exceeded the percentage of single women in all age groups up to 65. The disparity was greatest in the youngest age range, 15-24. Close to nine out of ten (88%) men



in this age group were single compared with about three-quarters (76%) of the women. The difference narrowed in each succeeding age group. By age 65 and over, the proportion of women who were single (8.6%) surpassed the corresponding proportion of men (7.6%).

Married

In all age groups except the elderly (65 and over), the proportion of people who were married dropped between 1981 and 1986. Declines were greatest among the young. In 1981, 20% of 15-24-year-olds were married; by 1986, the proportion was about 17%. The decrease among 25-34-year-olds was from 74% to 69%.

Under age 35, women are more likely than men to be married. This was particularly noticeable in the 15-24 age group. The proportion of these women who were married in 1986 (22%) was double the proportion for their male contemporaries (11%). By ages 35-44, men were slightly more likely than women to be married, and by age 65 and over, the gap widened so that the percentage of married men far exceeded the percentage of married women: 74% versus 40%.

Widowed

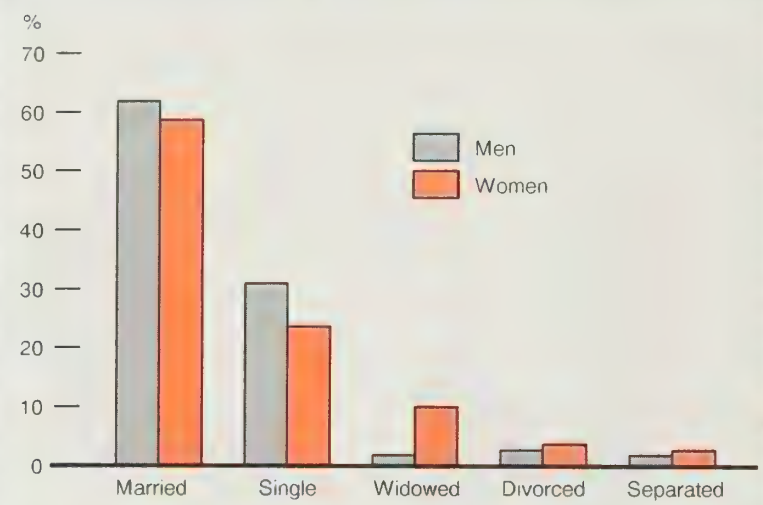
The proportion of each age group that was widowed either remained the same or declined slightly in the five years from 1981 to 1986.

Widowhood is rare among young people (fewer than half of one percent of those under 35), but becomes increasingly prevalent at older ages. By age 65, about a third of the population is widowed. However, the proportions of elderly men and women who are widowed differ sharply. Almost half (48%) of women aged 65 and over were widows in 1986, compared with fewer than 14% of men. This disparity results from women's longer life expectancy and their tendency to marry men several years older than themselves. Women, therefore, frequently outlive their husbands. The large number of widows constitutes a sizable pool of potential spouses for the relatively few elderly men who are widowed. In fact, the 1986 Census showed that 74% of elderly men were married.

Divorced

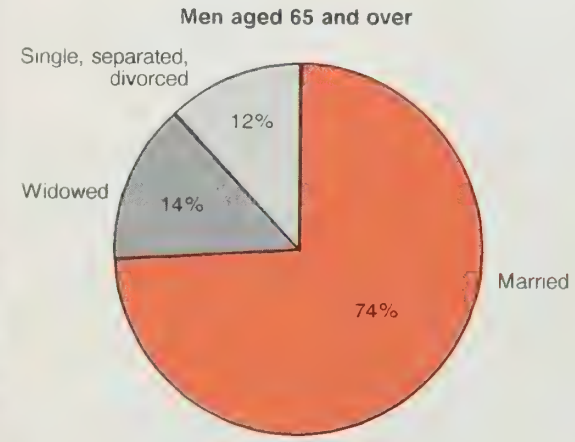
Divorced marital status is most common in the 35-54 age range, although even at these ages, in 1986 only a small minority of people were divorced. These are also the ages with the greatest increases in the proportions who were divorced. In 1986, over 6% of 35-54-year-olds were divorced, up from about 4.5% five years earlier. The proportions of

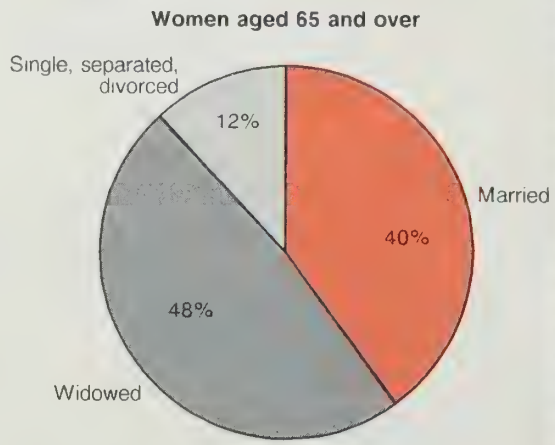
Marital status of men and women, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Marital status of elderly men and women, 1986





Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada

divorced people aged 35 and under remained low between 1981 and 1986. Just 0.2% of 15-24-year-olds and 3.1% of 25-34-year-olds were divorced in 1986.

Among age groups 55 and over, divorced marital status was less frequent than among 35-54-year-olds, although the percentages have also increased. However, statistics from other sources indicate that by age 54, about one-third of adult Canadians have been divorced at least once.

Because women's remarriage rate is somewhat lower, at most ages they are more likely than men to be divorced. Overall, when the Census was taken in 1986, 4.1% of women were divorced compared with 2.8% of men. In the 35-54 age group, over 7% of women and about 5% of men were divorced. In older age groups, proportions dropped, and among the elderly, the percentages of men and women who were divorced were almost equal.

Separated

The only age group in which the proportion of separated people increased between 1981 and 1986 was 35-44. This was also the group most likely to report separated marital status: 3.6% in 1981; 3.9% in 1986.

Up to age 55, women were more likely than men to be separated. Percentages were equal among 55-64-year-olds, and by age 65 and over, the percentage of separated men surpassed that of women: 2.2% compared with 1.5%.

Conclusion

Between 1981 and 1986, divorced people constituted the fastest-growing marital category, followed by those who were separated. Although both groups are small, together numbering just over one million, they represent increasing proportions of the population. Moreover, since most divorced people eventually remarry, the numbers who have ever been divorced are much higher than Census figures indicate.

The proportion of young adults staying single is rising, while the percentage who are married has declined. This suggests that young people are postponing marriage and family formation.

Despite an increase in the number of widows and widowers, the proportion of the population who were widowed was almost unchanged between 1981 and 1986.

Mary Sue Devereaux *is a Managing Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

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PASSENGER TRAFFIC ON COMMERCIAL AIR SERVICES

Based on *Aviation in Canada*, Chapter II, Part II, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 51-501E



Canada is a highly mobile society. Data on air passenger traffic demonstrate that this is so, as more and more Canadians take advantage of the availability of affordable air travel. Long distances separating family members have been shortened. Work schedules often involve commuting between distant urban centres. For many, air travel has made possible a mid-winter escape from the harsh Canadian climate.

A growing number of Canadians now find air travel within their reach, as air carriers vie with each other for the travel dollar. Increased competition, brought about by changes in regulations, has allowed the carriers to introduce (and withdraw) services more freely. Consequently, despite a downturn during the recession of the early eighties, by 1985 passengers on scheduled flights and charters numbered about 27 million. This was up from 1975 when the total was around 21 million.

Traffic on scheduled flights, whether within Canada or to international destinations, far exceeds the number of passengers flying on charters. Since 1980, however, charter traffic has grown much faster than scheduled traffic.

Travel within Canada is heavily dominated by scheduled flights, with charters accounting for only a small fraction (3%) of all passengers. The situation for international air travel is somewhat different: while the scheduled market continues to be much larger than the charter market, charters make up a growing share. In 1985, charters accounted for 26% of all international air passengers, a rise from 20% in 1975.

SCHEDULED SERVICES

Domestic Scheduled Services

From 1975 to 1980, the number of passengers travelling on domestic scheduled services increased from 10.4 million to 13.9 million, a rise of 34%. During the recession, numbers dropped to a low of 11.2 million in 1983. The end of the recession did not mean the recouping of all lost passengers. In 1985, the total was 11.9 million, still 14% below the 1980 high.

Toronto dominated the domestic

Top ten city-pairs for domestic scheduled flights, 1975, 1980-1985

1985 rank	City-pair	1975	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
		Passengers - 000s						
1	Montreal-Toronto	963	1,127	1,115	988	972	1,085	1,198
2	Ottawa-Toronto	496	575	559	571	557	624	633
3	Toronto-Vancouver	302	532	547	459	469	495	458
4	Calgary-Vancouver	291	455	472	470	440	437	430
5	Calgary-Toronto	174	397	433	420	388	396	400
6	Calgary-Edmonton	413	723	690	487	389	362	351
7	Edmonton-Vancouver	254	377	378	373	352	353	349
8	Toronto-Winnipeg	238	316	301	305	299	305	322
9	Edmonton-Toronto	139	298	307	301	265	274	270
10	Halifax-Toronto	168	220	228	237	204	245	260
	Others	6,924	8,959	8,498	7,532	6,908	7,308	7,251
	Total	**10,360**	**13,920**	**13,525**	**12,141**	**11,242**	**11,884**	**11,919**

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 51-501E.

Top ten city-pairs for scheduled Canada-United States flights, 1975, 1980-1985

1985 rank	City-pair	1975	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
		Passengers - 000s						
1	Toronto-New York	488	683	623	559	560	624	637
2	Montreal-New York	331	354	320	305	284	330	410
3	Toronto-Chicago	172	210	202	190	197	222	228
4	Vancouver-Los Angeles	123	197	187	156	175	176	184
5	Toronto-Boston	87	137	136	140	160	173	171
6	Montreal-Miami	172	240	230	199	157	161	166
7	Toronto-Los Angeles	105	188	178	143	161	148	162
8	Toronto-Miami	115	157	158	159	130	137	134
9	Vancouver-San Francisco	120	145	139	119	126	129	133
10	Montreal-Boston	110	134	131	124	124	133	129
	Others	3,502	5,205	5,108	4,516	4,264	4,630	4,485
	Total	**5,324**	**7,650**	**7,411**	**6,609**	**6,339**	**6,865**	**6,839**

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 51-501E.

scheduled sector, serving as a focal point for much of the air traffic flow throughout the country. In 1985, seven of the top ten city-pairs involved Toronto.

Throughout the 1975-1985 period, Toronto-Montreal ranked as the number one city-pair. In 1985, for example, Toronto-Montreal accounted for 10% of all domestic scheduled flights. Ottawa-Toronto was the second most travelled route, except in 1980 and 1981, when it was surpassed by Calgary-Edmonton.

Scheduled air traffic between all top ten city-pairs declined during the recession. By 1985, half of them had regained the traffic lost in that period. Those that had not recovered involved western cities. The hardest-hit city-pair was Calgary-Edmonton, notable not only because 1985 traffic was below the pre-recession high, but also because numbers had declined steadily to less than the 1975 level.

International Scheduled Services

From 1975 to 1985, the international scheduled market grew faster than the domestic scheduled market. The number of international scheduled air passengers increased by over 31%, from 8.3 million in 1975 to 10.9 million in 1985. This compared with a 15% rise in the number of domestic scheduled air passengers.

As with domestic flights, international traffic rose between 1975 and 1980 and then declined during the recession. A peak occurred in 1980, when volume reached 11.3 million passengers. Numbers dropped in the next three years, but started to rise again in 1984. Yet by 1985, total volume was still about 4% below the 1980 high.

While the number of international scheduled passengers has fluctuated, their choice of destinations has been quite stable, with the United States standing first, followed by Europe, southern destinations, and others.

From 1975 to 1985, Canada's prime international market remained the continental United States. Although there have been minor variations, at least 60% of all international scheduled passengers went to the United States.

As is the case for domestic scheduled services, Toronto once again occupied a key position: it was the Canadian half of five of the top ten transborder city-pairs. The two leading city-pairs were Toronto-New York and Montreal-New York, ranking first and second, respectively, in every year from 1975 to 1985.

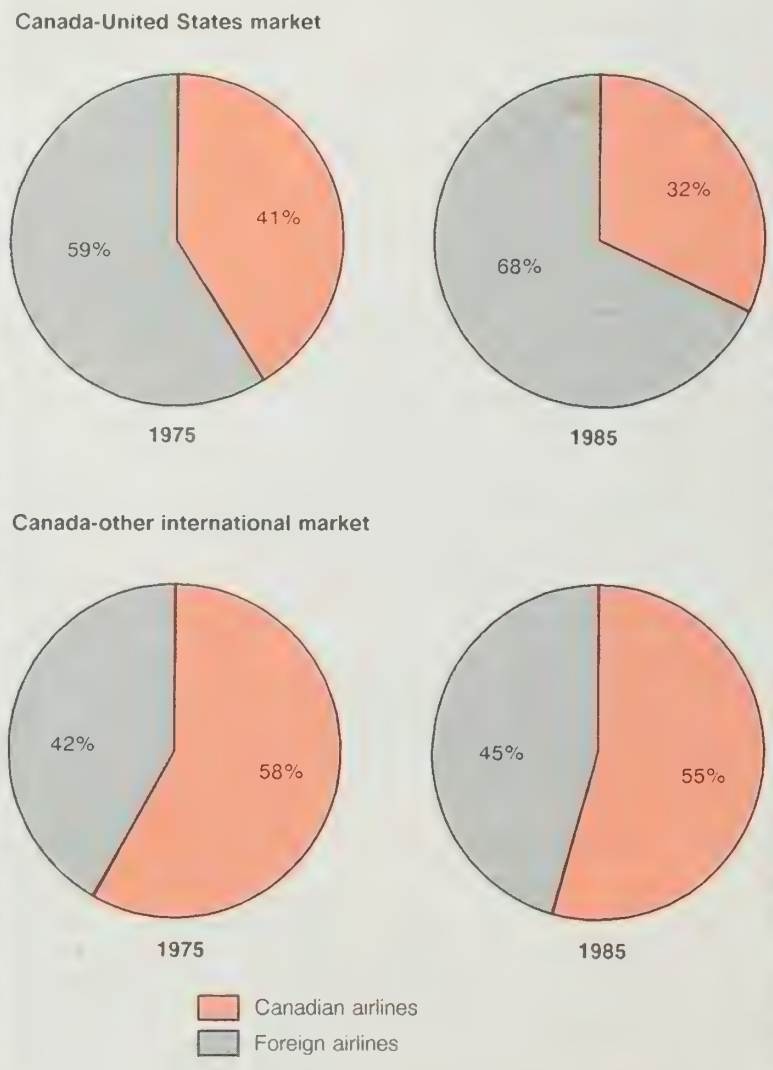
Europe stood second as a destination for international scheduled flights, accounting for 21% of traffic in 1985. The southern market (Bermuda, the Bahamas, the Caribbean Islands, Mexico, Central

Top five city-pairs for chartered domestic flights, 1980-1985

1985 rank	City-pair	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
		Passengers - 000s					
1	Toronto-Vancouver	50	61	110	152	121	163
2	Calgary-Toronto	14	57	70	73	61	58
3	Edmonton-Toronto	6	15	24	48	40	55
4	Halifax-Toronto	-	-	-	19	11	10
5	Toronto-Winnipeg	3	2	2	7	18	7
	Others	48	57	35	40	59	68
	Total	**120**	**193**	**242**	**338**	**310**	**360**

- Nil or zero.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 51-501E.

Canadian and foreign airlines' shares of passengers on international scheduled flights, 1975 and 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 51-501E



America, and South America) made up another 8% of all international scheduled services.

Remaining market shares were small. Asia, accounting for about 6% in 1985, had grown from around 3% in 1975. Africa and the Pacific region each hovered close to the 1% mark.

In 1985, Canadian airlines carried 41% of all international scheduled passengers, a decline from 46% in 1975. Approximately 32% of passengers in the Canada-United States market were flown by Canadian carriers in 1985, down from 41% in 1975. Canadian carriers' share of the Canada-other international market also dropped, falling from 58% to 55%.

CHARTER SERVICES

Domestic Charter Services

From 1980 to 1985, the number of passengers travelling in Canada on advance booking charters tripled from 120,000 to



360,000. Nonetheless, this was relatively insignificant compared with the 11.9 million domestic travellers who used scheduled services in 1985.

Primarily, domestic charters are long-haul. In 1985, five city-pairs accounted for over 80% of all passengers on domestic charters. Each of these city-pairs involved Toronto, and four of the five other cities were at least 1,500 kilometres away (Vancouver, Edmonton, Calgary, and Winnipeg). Halifax, at 1,287 kilometres, was the exception.

Continued page 34

Safety

An aviation accident occurs when a passenger or crew member sustains a serious flight-related injury or when damage to an aircraft requires major repairs. From 1970 to 1984, the number of accidents per 100,000 hours flown for all commercial aviation decreased from 13.6 to 6.6. Not only did the accident rate decline, but so did the absolute number of accidents, which fell from 219 in 1970 to 151 in 1984. Technological advances, both in the air and on the ground, have meant a better safety record despite increases in the number of hours flown.

Top ten city-pairs for chartered Canada-United States flights, 1975, 1980-1985

1985 rank	City-pair	1975	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
		Passengers - 000s						
1	Montreal-Fort Lauderdale	15	37	133	183	147	150	137
2	Toronto-Fort Lauderdale	26	49	56	87	101	123	135
3	Toronto-Tampa	8	110	132	115	124	112	135
4	Toronto-Las Vegas	22	15	35	45	42	52	117
5	Vancouver-Honolulu	39	126	111	165	128	98	110
6	Toronto-Orlando	1	82	102	94	108	98	108
7	Toronto-Clearwater/ St. Petersburg	49	70	80	81	96	96	103
8	Vancouver-Reno	15	86	101	105	102	103	92
9	Edmonton-Honolulu	42	67	50	56	53	60	56
10	Calgary-Honolulu	16	68	49	61	53	54	54
	Others	223	626	627	641	620	617	699
	Total	**458**	**1,334**	**1,478**	**1,634**	**1,574**	**1,562**	**1,746**

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 51-501E.

Top five city-pairs for chartered Canada-Europe flights, 1975, 1980-1985

1985 rank	City-pair	1975	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
		Passengers - 000s						
1	Toronto-London (England)	243	131	112	131	156	148	182
2	Montreal-Paris (France)	37	21	20	40	38	60	108
3	Toronto-Manchester (England)	57	73	76	77	83	79	77
4	Toronto-Glasgow (Scotland)	64	79	75	88	75	77	75
5	Vancouver-London (England)	88	55	55	52	85	62	65
	Others	471	404	427	489	480	521	556
	Total	**961**	**763**	**765**	**877**	**916**	**947**	**1,062**

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 51-501E.

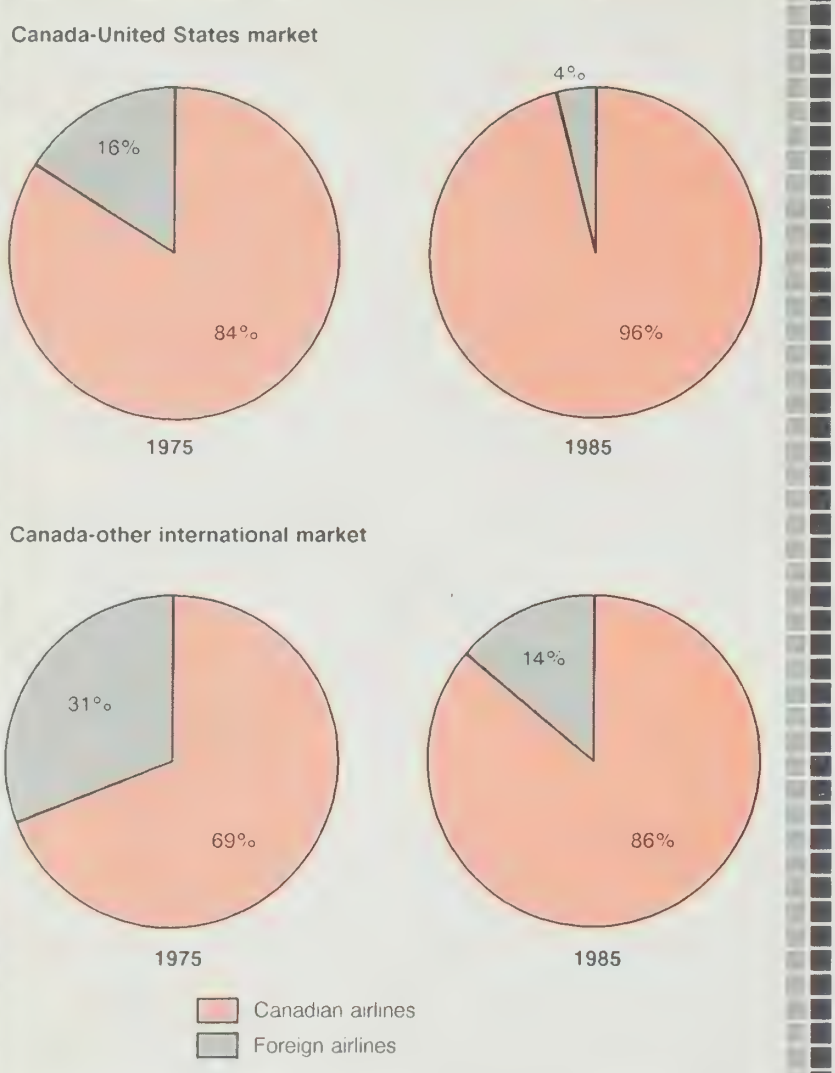
Top five city-pairs for chartered Canada-South flights, 1975, 1980-1985

1985 rank	City-pair	1975	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
		Passengers - 000s						
1	Toronto-Acapulco (Mexico)	38	32	32	40	93	90	73
2	Toronto-Bridgetown (Barbados)	58	46	39	47	47	61	61
3	Montreal-Acapulco (Mexico)	22	50	34	26	61	82	61
4	Toronto-Montego Bay (Jamaica)	19	22	19	54	43	41	50
5	Toronto-Puerto Vallarta (Mexico)	2	12	11	15	36	43	39
	Others	482	268	226	210	330	429	633
	Total	**621**	**430**	**361**	**393**	**610**	**746**	**917**

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 51-501E.



Canadian and foreign airlines' shares of passengers on international charter flights, 1975 and 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 51-501E.

International Charter Services

Unlike international scheduled traffic, the number of international charter passengers rose steadily throughout the eighties, and by 1985 totalled 3.8 million. This was almost double the 2 million who had flown on international charters in 1975.

There was also a shift in the most popular destinations. In 1985, nearly half (47%) of passengers on international charters were bound for the United States; another 28% went to Europe; and 24% to southern destinations. This was a marked change from 1975, when Europe accounted for 47% of all passengers, followed by the south (30%), and the United States (22%).

Charter traffic to the United States rose from 458,000 in 1975 to 1.63 million in 1982. Declines in the next two years brought the 1984 figure down to 1.56 million, but an upturn in 1985 resulted in an all-time high of 1.75 million.

Most Canadians flying in the Canada-United States charter market go to warm weather vacation spots. In 1985, of the top ten city-pairs, eight involved either Florida or Hawaii. The respective destinations of eastern and western Canadians are also evident. In the east, they tend to go to Florida; in the west, to Hawaii.

If on the other hand, Canadians are travelling to Europe, the leading market is the United Kingdom. Of the top five city-pairs in 1985, four involved the United Kingdom. Travel to Europe did not decline during the recession of the early eighties; numbers rose steadily to an all-time high of more than one million in 1985.

The Canada-South market, however, was affected by the economic downturn. Passenger traffic to southern destinations fell 16% from 430,000 in 1980 to 361,000 in 1981. Sustained growth in the following years brought the 1985 total to 917,000.

Unlike international scheduled services, Canadian carriers increased their share of traffic on international charters. In 1985, they transported 96% of all Canada-United States charter passengers, up from 84% in 1975. Comparable figures for the Canada-other international market were 86% and 69%.

Discount Fares

In the late 1970s, when domestic charters were granted the right to compete with scheduled services, discount excursion fares became common. Before then, the range of air fares was limited. Apart from scheduled first class fares and economy class, there were a small number of excursion fares, but these were available only during off-peak seasons.

The change in Canadian fare structures was also prompted by the passage of American legislation in 1978, which introduced a whole new range of price levels and fare types to the United States market. The proximity of American airports to Canada's largest population centres forced the Canadian industry to follow suit or risk losing business to cheaper carriers south of the border.

By 1985, 53% of all domestic passengers travelled on discount fares, up from 45% in 1983.

Distance is an important factor in discount fare utilization. In 1985, discount carriage on long-haul (800 kilometres or more) services represented 64% of passenger volume, compared with 46% for short-haul (less than 800 kilometres).

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,625.1[p]
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.1[p]
Immigration	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	123,076[p]
Emigration	51,060	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	41,090[p]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918	870
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311	11,634	11,955
- goods sector (000s)	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348	3,417	3,489
- services sector (000s)	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963	8,217	8,465
Total unemployment (000s)	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328	1,236	1,167
Unemployment rate	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.6	8.9
Part-time employment %	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.6	15.2
Women's participation rate	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3	55.1	56.2
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1986 $	37,855	36,923	35,420	34,862	34,828	35,455	36,042	*
% of families with low income	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	13.3	12.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	-	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	64.9	66.0	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,106.3	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	643.4	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.4	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	*
Government expenditure on education (1987 $000,000)	28,095.8	28,790.5	28,929.6	29,475.2	28,642.5	31,381.7	30,013.5	30,232.6[p]
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	*
- women	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	-	36.7	-	34.0	-	33.1	30.8	*
- women	-	28.9	-	28.3	-	27.8	25.8	*
Government expenditure on health (1987 $000,000)	24,416.9	25,982.5	27,046.9	28,501.8	29,552.9	30,267.1	31,271.0	32,149.8[p]
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	648	666	685	692	714	749	801	*
- property	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,660	*
- homicide	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[1] (1987 $000,000)	118,984.6	121,610.7	130,153.6	136,395.7	139,371.6	144,606.4	146,052.0	147,464.2[p]
- as a % of total expenditures	57.8	57.3	58.1	59.5	58.2	59.2	59.8	60.4[p]
- as a % of GDP	24.7	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.7	27.7	27.4	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	*
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	+1.5	+3.7	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.3	+3.3	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4
Urban housing starts	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,368[p]

- Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.
[1] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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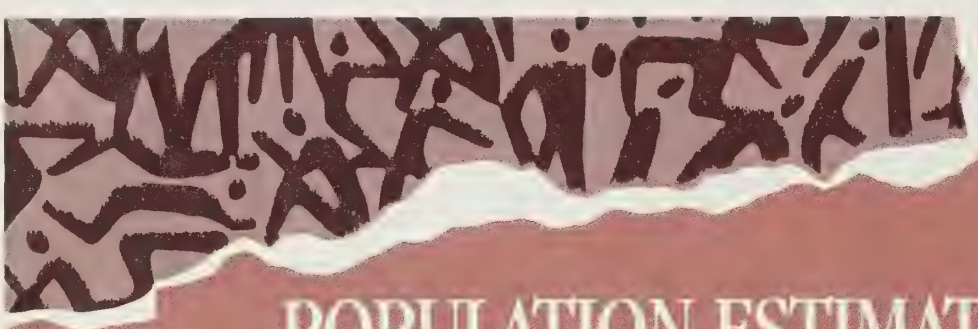
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51-501	Aviation in Canada	$ 27.00	$ 28.50
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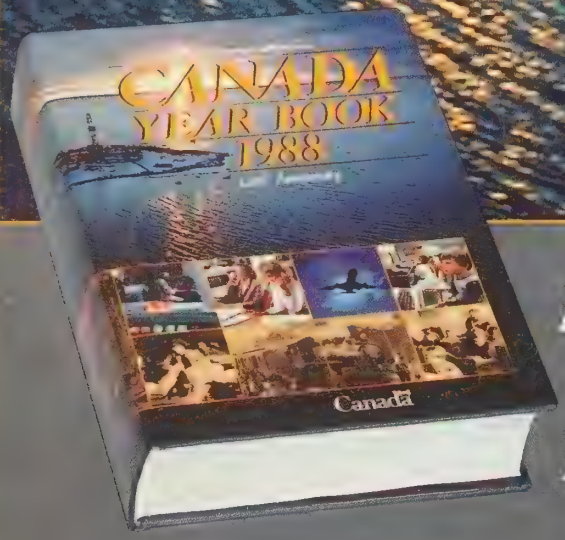
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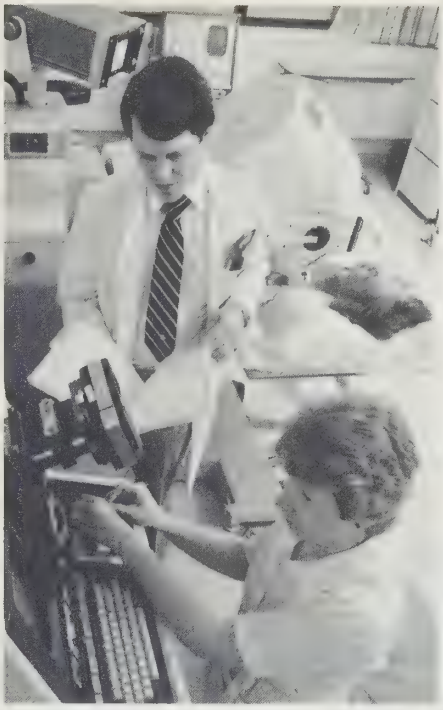
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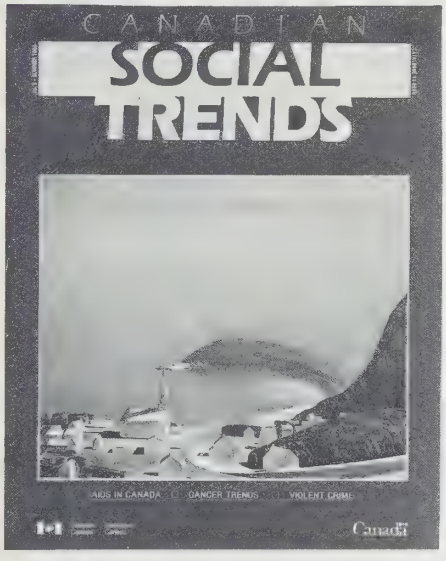
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About the artist:

Charles F. Comfort, O.C., was born in 1900 in Edinburgh, Scotland. Twelve years later, he and his family moved to Canada and settled in Winnipeg. After studying at the Winnipeg School of Art, he continued his training in New York, returning to Canada in the early 1920s. During his career, he lectured at the University of Toronto, went to Europe during World War II as the Senior Official War Artist, and was Director of the National Gallery of Canada from 1960 to 1965. He is best known for his brilliant water colours, as well as his large murals.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

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AIDS IN CANADA

by Carol Strike



Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome, or AIDS, continues to represent a formidable challenge to Canadian society. AIDS is primarily a sexually transmitted disease caused by the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV). This infection may result in development of life-threatening opportunistic infections and/or malignancies. While research for a cure or vaccine is ongoing, and education programs highlighting the dangers of this disease have been developed and introduced both to the public and in schools, the total number of cases of AIDS in Canada continues to increase.

AIDS cases and deaths

The first AIDS case in Canada was diagnosed in 1979; by the end of 1987, a total of 1,654 cases had been documented.[1]

A record number of new AIDS cases (615) were diagnosed in Canada in 1987. In fact, this figure was over 28% higher than the number of new cases diagnosed the previous year. As a result, the total number of AIDS cases in Canada rose 59% in 1987. This overall rate of growth, however, was down from 1986, when there had been an 86% increase. As well, by the end of 1987, 963 people in Canada had died from AIDS.

Individuals can carry the HIV for an indefinite period without developing either

[1] All data in this article are from the Federal Centre for AIDS, a branch of Health and Welfare Canada. In September 1987, the Federal Centre for AIDS accepted a revision proposed by the U.S. Center for Disease Control and broadened the criteria for an AIDS diagnosis. The new criteria will be applied to cases not previously identified as AIDS that occurred before this date. The resulting reclassification of some of these cases as AIDS may increase the total number of reported cases of this disease.

the illnesses characteristic of AIDS, or any of the symptoms of the infection. The Federal Centre for AIDS has estimated, for example, that about 30,000 people in Canada carry the HIV. Current evidence suggests that around 35% of carriers will develop AIDS within six years of infection. The Federal Centre for AIDS has projected that by the end of 1991, between 4,000 and 7,000 people in Canada will have been diagnosed as having AIDS.

Major risk factors for AIDS

The majority of AIDS patients have been homosexual or bisexual men. This group made up 80% of all cases through the end of 1987, as well as 84% of new patients in 1987.

People from countries where the HIV is widespread made up the second largest group of AIDS patients. Through 1987, 5% of all cases were in this category, with most likely acquiring the infection through sexual activity.

Intravenous (I.V.) drug abusers made up 3% of the total number of AIDS cases. Of these, 2.5% were also homosexuals or bisexuals, while the remaining 0.6% were people with no other risk factor.

Recipients of blood transfusions or other blood products made up another 5% of all AIDS patients, while heterosexuals who contracted the HIV infection through sexual contact with someone in a high risk group made up 2% of all cases. In another 3% of cases, risk factors were not identified.

In addition, 2% of AIDS patients have been children under age 15. Through 1987, 33 such cases had been reported. In 29 of these cases, transmission was from mother to fetus; the others contracted the infection through transfusions received prior to the implementation of universal testing of blood donors.



Additional risk factors: age and sex

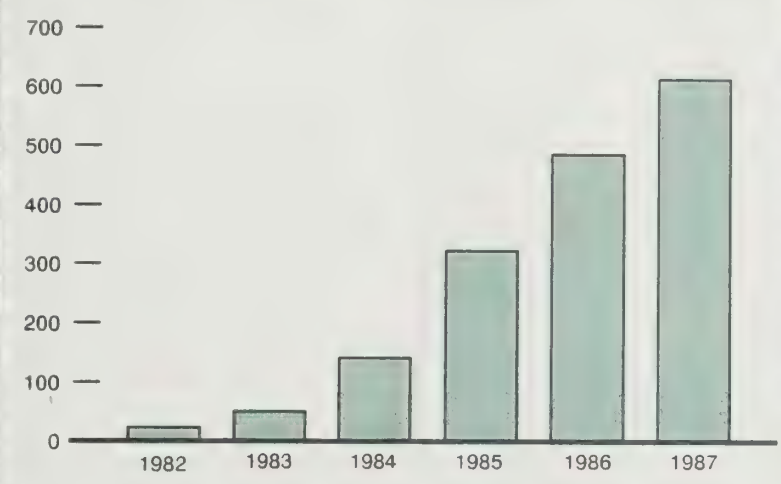
Men aged 20-49 make up the vast majority of AIDS patients. Through 1987, 83% of all those diagnosed with AIDS were men in this age range. Men aged 30-39 had the highest cumulative incidence of AIDS, with 38 cases per 100,000 men in this age group. Men aged 40-49 and 20-29 also had higher than average rates: 24 and 13 cases per 100,000 population, respectively.

Men aged 50 and over had a cumulative AIDS rate of 5 cases per 100,000 population. In no other group did the AIDS rate exceed 1.5.

Most AIDS cases in three provinces

AIDS cases in Canada are concentrated in three provinces – Ontario, Quebec, and

Number of new cases[1] of AIDS, 1982-1987



[1] Number of cases in 1979, 1980 and 1981 were 1, 3 and 6 respectively.
Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Federal Centre for AIDS.

Public perception of AIDS

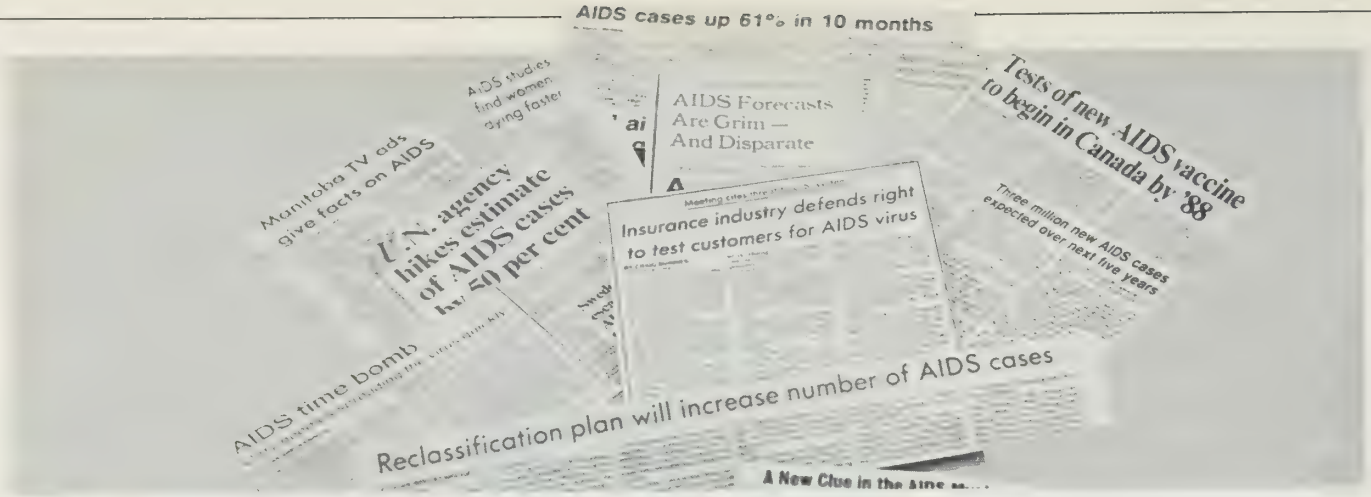
Public awareness of AIDS in Canada was measured by Environics Research in a 1987 *Focus Canada Report* poll. Answers to the question, "Have you heard of the disease AIDS?" indicated that virtually all Canadians (99%) were aware of AIDS. In addition, the survey results suggested that most Canadians view AIDS as a serious problem. To the question, "Do you think that the disease AIDS is a very serious, somewhat serious, not very serious or not at all serious problem in Canada today?", almost 80% responded that it was a very serious problem. This was up from 1985, when only 56% of Canadians rated AIDS a very serious problem.

Perception of the seriousness of AIDS generally increases with age. For example, 85% of people aged 60 and over regarded AIDS as a very serious disease compared with 74% of those aged 20-29. Married people (81%) were also more likely than single people (74%) to regard AIDS as a very serious problem.

Concern about AIDS extends to specific issues. For example, the *Decima Quarterly Report* asked Canadians the following question in 1987:

"In determining the cost and availability of life insurance, life insurance companies might feel it is necessary for a person applying for life insurance to take medical tests for various diseases like AIDS. Would you strongly approve, approve, disapprove or strongly disapprove of life insurance companies requiring applicants to take such medical tests if they feel it was necessary?"

In response, 16% of those surveyed strongly approved testing, 57% approved, 20% disapproved, and 7% strongly disapproved. Only 1% had no opinion.



AIDS in Canada in an international perspective

The incidence of AIDS is much lower in Canada than in the United States. By the end of 1987, almost 50,000 cases had been reported in the United States. When expressed on a per capita basis, the incidence of AIDS was more than three times higher in the U.S. than in Canada.

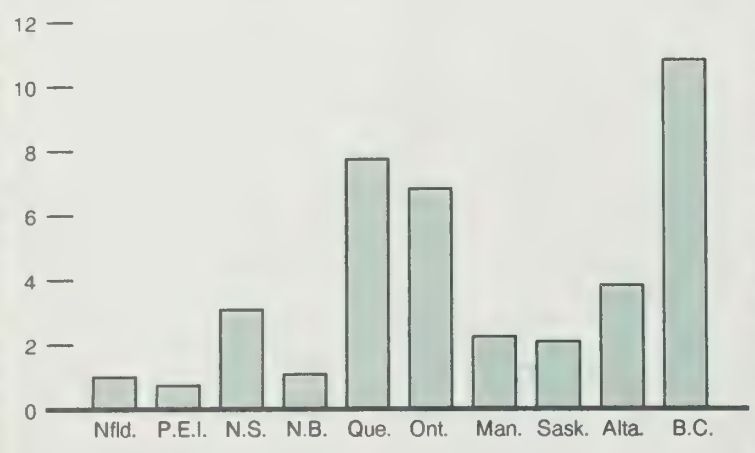
For the most part, though, AIDS patients in Canada and the United States have similar characteristics. In both countries, most patients are men between the ages of 20 and 49, with those aged 30-39 having, by far, the highest cumulative rates.

Homosexual or bisexual men also account for the majority of AIDS cases in both countries, although their share is greater in Canada (80%) than in the United States (65%). Intravenous drug abusers, including homosexual or bisexual drug abusers, make up a much greater proportion of AIDS victims in the United States. Through 1987, 25% of American AIDS patients compared with just 3% of those in Canada were I.V. drug abusers.

As in Canada, AIDS in the United States is regionally concentrated. Just two states, California and New York, account for almost half of all U.S. cases.

On the other hand, the incidence of AIDS in Canada is roughly similar to that in European countries.

Total AIDS cases per 100,000 population, by province, 1979-1987



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Federal Centre for AIDS.

British Columbia. Through 1987, these provinces, representing about 73% of the Canadian population, accounted for 89% of all AIDS cases. As well, 87% of new cases diagnosed in 1987 occurred in these provinces.

British Columbia had the highest cumulative rate of AIDS of any province. Through 1987, 10.9 AIDS cases had been diagnosed in British Columbia for every 100,000 residents of that province.

Quebec and Ontario also had very high cumulative AIDS rates. Through 1987, there were 7.8 AIDS cases per 100,000 population in Quebec and 6.9 in Ontario. Trends in these two provinces, however, took different directions in 1987. The number of new cases rose 46% in Ontario; in contrast, the number of new cases in Quebec was almost the same in 1987 as in the previous year.

With a rate of 3.9, Alberta was the only other province in which the cumulative incidence of AIDS was over 3.5 cases per 100,000 population. Prince Edward Island and the Northwest Territories both reported their first AIDS case in 1987, while the Yukon had yet to report a case through the end of 1987.

Note: As of May 9, 1988, 1,737 cases of AIDS had been reported in Canada.

Carol Strike *is a staff writer with* Canadian Social Trends.

WOMEN TEACHING AT CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES

by Judith Hollands

Canadian universities have experienced phenomenal growth in the past twenty-five years. In this period, thousands of new teaching positions were created, many of which have been filled by women.[1] However, while women entered this profession at a more rapid rate than men, they remain a minority in Canadian university faculties. As well, they tend to be concentrated in the lower academic ranks, and at all ranks, are paid less than men.



Large proportional increases

The number of women teaching full-time in Canadian universities rose from fewer than 750 in 1960 to almost 6,000 in 1985. This was an increase of 713%. In the same period, the number of male university teachers rose 410%, from 5,700 to 29,200.

Most of the growth in the number of both male and female university teachers occurred between 1960 and 1975 when the baby-boom population flooded into Canadian universities. During this period, female faculty increased 487%, compared with 363% for male faculty.

The number of women teaching in Canadian universities continued to rise more rapidly than the number of men in the late 1970s and 1980s, although increases for both in this period were considerably below those of the previous decade and a half. Between 1975 and 1985, the number of women teaching at the university level rose 39% while the number of men increased just 10%.

Despite the relatively large proportional increases in the number of women teaching at Canadian universities, women remain a minority in this profession. In 1985, they made up just 17% of all full-time university

[1] This article refers only to full-time university teachers.

teachers; this was a gain of only 6 percentage points from 1960 when 11% of full-time faculty were women.

Women a minority in all disciplines

The majority of both male and female university teachers are employed in four broad fields of study: social sciences, health sciences, humanities, and education. A considerably higher proportion of female than male faculty, though, are concentrated in these disciplines. In 1985, 81% of all female faculty (compared with 64% of men) taught in one of these fields.

Women, however, are a minority in all disciplines. In 1985, their share of all full-time positions ranged from roughly one-quarter of those in education (26%), health sciences (24%), and fine and applied arts (24%) to just 6% of those in mathematics and physical sciences, and 2% of those in engineering and applied sciences. In addition, 21% of teachers in humanities, 17% of those in biological sciences, and 16% of those in social sciences were women.

The number of women as a percentage of all teachers has risen in each of these disciplines in the last decade. The largest increases, over four percentage points, were in social sciences, humanities, and fine and applied arts. The smallest increase, just one percentage point, occurred in biological sciences.

The wide range in the proportion of women teaching in various academic fields reflects, in part, that women are more likely to earn graduate degrees in some disciplines than in others. In 1986, for example, just over half (51%) of all doctoral degree recipients in education were women, as were more than a third of those in social sciences (37%), health professions (35%), and humanities (34%). Women's representation among doctoral graduates, however, was considerably lower in biological sciences (23%), mathematics and physical sciences (15%), and, especially, engineering and applied sciences (3%).

More women teachers in lower academic ranks

Generally, women teaching at Canadian universities make up a much greater proportion of all full-time faculty in the lower academic ranks than they do at higher levels. In 1985, women made up 44% of lecturers and instructors and 29% of assistant professors. In comparison, only 16% of associate professors and just 6% of full professors were women.

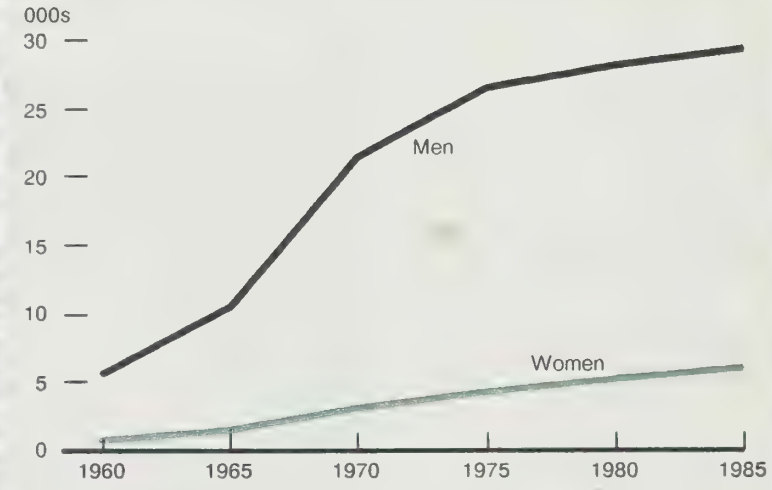
As well, women's share of full professorships in 1985 was just 2 percentage points higher than in 1960 when 4% of full professors were women. In the same period, the proportion of associate professors who were women increased 6 percentage points, while the figure rose 17 points for assistant professors and 20 points for lecturers and instructors.

The slow movement of women into the higher academic ranks may be attributable, in part, to the generally long time lag between entry into university teaching and attainment of full or associate professor status. Because the entry of large numbers of women into Canadian university faculties occurred only recently, a large proportion of them have not yet had time to acquire the seniority necessary to advance into the higher ranks.

Fewer female faculty with doctoral degrees

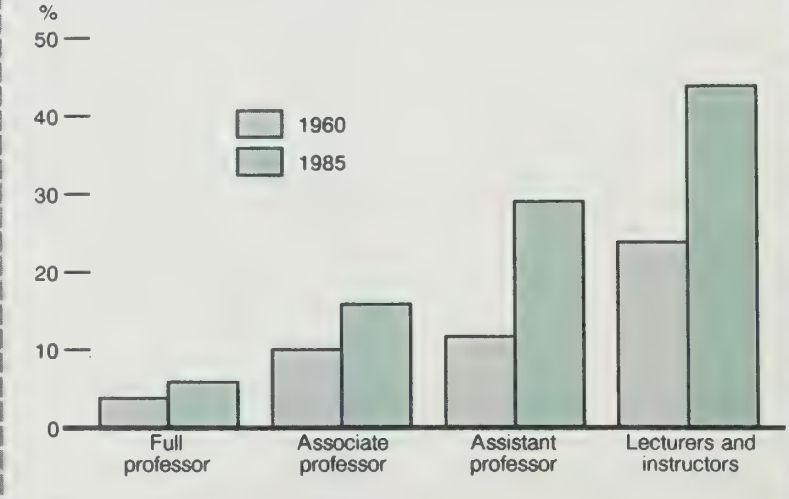
Another reason why women are concentrated in the lower academic ranks is that fewer female than male teachers have

Full-time university teachers, by sex, 1960-1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-241.

Women as a percentage of full-time university teachers, by academic rank, 1960 and 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-241.

doctoral degrees. In 1985, 47% of all female faculty compared with 69% of male teachers had doctorates. The difference in qualifications, however, has been closing. In 1975, 34% of female faculty members had doctoral degrees compared with 62% of male teachers.

A much smaller proportion of female than male university teachers with doctorates, though, are full professors. In 1985, just 20% of all female teachers with doctorates compared with 47% of similarly educated male teachers were full professors. Again, much of this difference may be attributable to differences in experience and senority.

Women's salaries lower

The concentration of female faculty in the lower academic ranks is reflected in lower median salaries for women teaching at Canadian universities. In 1985, the median salary of full-time female teachers was $41,300, about $10,000 less than the median salary for men ($51,400).

As well, the median salary of women university teachers has changed little in relation to that of their male counterparts in the last decade. In 1985, the median salary of female faculty was 81% that of men, down slightly from 82% in 1975.

While much of the overall difference in salary between male and female university teachers is attributable to differences in academic rank, median salaries of female faculty were also lower than those of men at each rank. As well, the higher the rank the larger was the difference. In 1985, the median salary of female full professors was $3,100 below that of male full professors. At the same time, female associate professors made about $1,900 less than men in this category, while the differences were $1,100 for assistant professors and $1,000 for lecturers and instructors.

The differences between the median salary of male and female university teachers at the various academic ranks remained when just faculty with doctoral degrees were compared. Female full professors with doctorates made $2,800 less than similarly educated male professors. For associate professors, the difference was $1,800 and for assistant professors it was $1,200. The comparison of the median salaries of lecturers and instructors with doctorates was not meaningful because of the small numbers of both men and women in this category.

As mentioned previously, the experience and seniority of men and women teaching in university differ, and these factors may explain some or all of the salary differences.

Female faculty also make less than their male counterparts in each of the major fields of study in which women are concentrated, although the size of the gap varies considerably. For example, the difference between the median salary of male and female full professors with doctorates was $3,800 in social sciences, $3,400 in health sciences, and $2,800 in education, but only $1,600 in humanities.

Judith Hollands *is a staff writer with* Canadian Social Trends.

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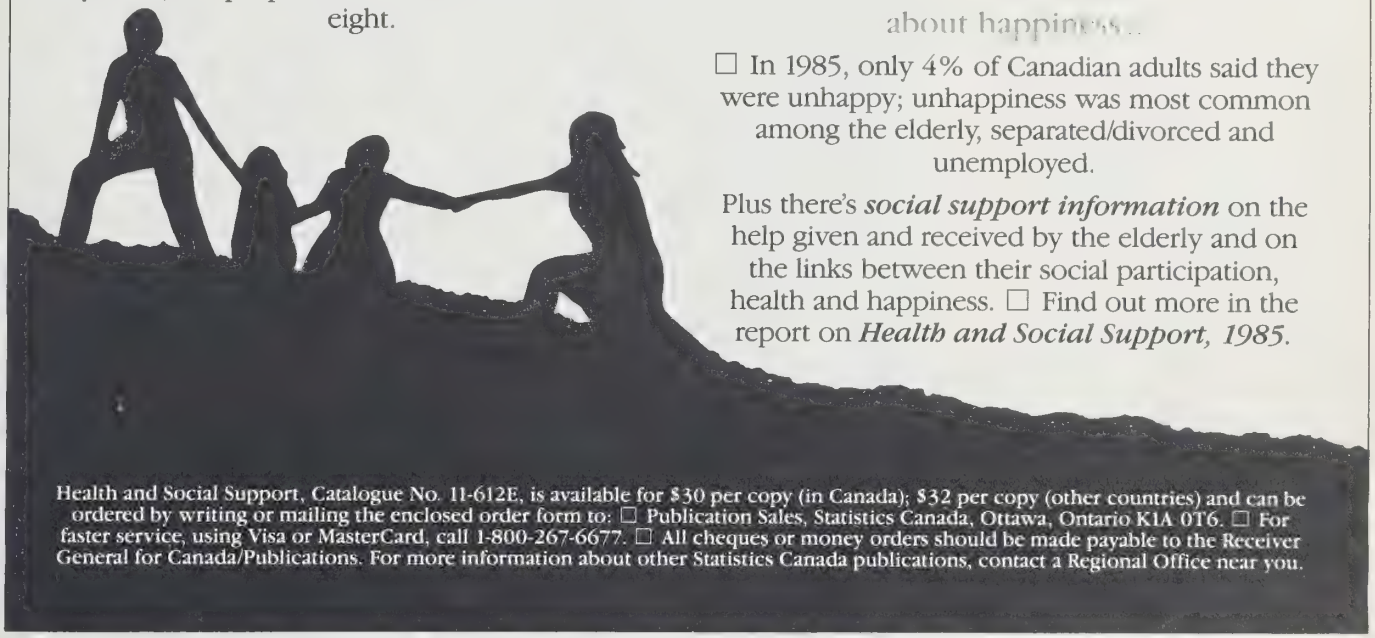
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TRENDS IN CANCER SINCE 1970

by Leslie Gaudette and Georgia Roberts



Few Canadian families remain untouched by cancer[1]. Just over one in three Canadians will develop some form of this disease during their lifetime. Cancer is currently the second leading cause of death after heart disease, accounting for one in four deaths each year; in 1988, an estimated 50,800 Canadians will die from this disease. Also, because mortality due to heart disease has been falling, the percentage of all deaths attributable to cancer has risen. This trend is expected to continue as the number of older Canadians (the group most at risk from cancer) grows as a proportion of the overall population.

There has been considerable variation, though, in trends for the major types of cancer. For some types, such as lung cancer, rates have increased; for others, such as stomach cancer, rates have fallen. For still others, rates have been relatively stable.

The cost of caring for cancer patients is a major concern. Because the elderly population in Canada is growing rapidly, cancer care facilities can expect both caseloads and costs to increase. The introduction of new drugs and treatment technologies in the last decade has also meant rising costs for the care of cancer patients.

Incidence of cancer rising

The overall incidence rate for cancer (i.e., the number of new cases diagnosed each

[1] Cancer includes all invasive malignant neoplasms with the exception of non-melanoma skin cancer.

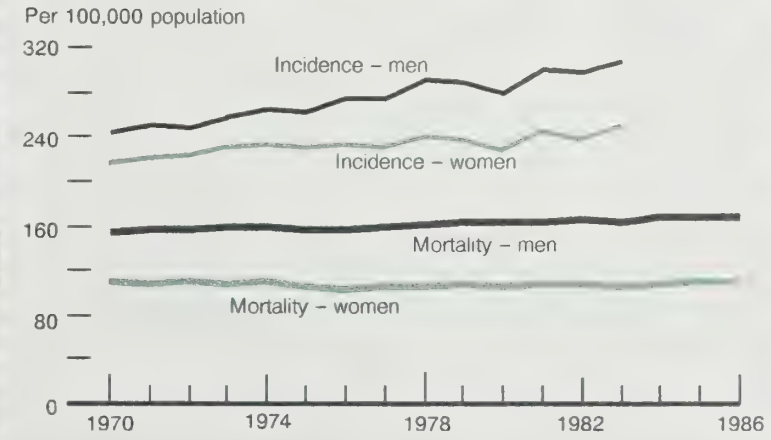
The cooperation of provincial cancer registries and vital statistics registrars in supplying the data used in this report is gratefully acknowledged.

Estimated new cases and deaths for major types of cancer,[1] 1988

	New cases			Deaths		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Lung	11,200	4,200	15,400	9,300	4,100	13,400
Colorectal	7,100	6,900	14,000	2,900	2,800	5,700
Breast	. . .	11,500	11,500	. . .	4,600	4,600
Prostate	8,400	. . .	8,400	3,000	. . .	3,000
Uterine	. . .	4,300	4,300	. . .	900	900
Stomach	1,900	1,100	3,000	700	300	1,000
Other types	22,000	17,700	39,700	12,100	10,100	22,200
Total	**50,600**	**45,700**	**96,300**	**28,000**	**22,800**	**50,800**

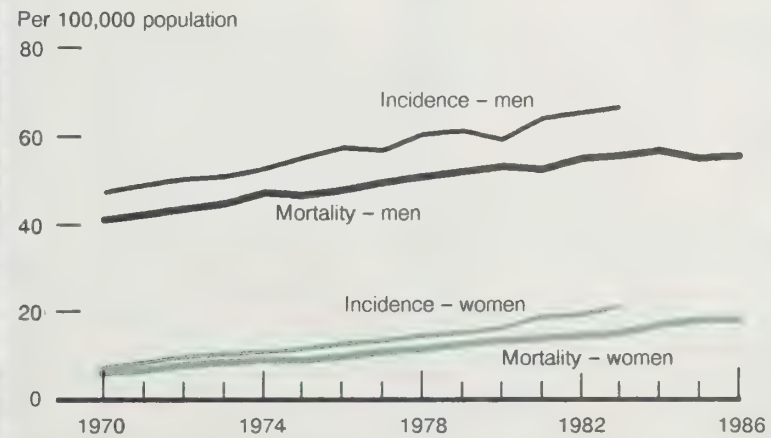
[1] Excludes non-melanoma skin cancer.
. figures not applicable.
Source: Canadian Cancer Society, *Canadian Cancer Statistics, 1988.*

Incidence and mortality rates for all cancers, 1970-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

Incidence and mortality rates for lung cancer, 1970-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

year per 100,000 population) has risen among both men and women, although the rate is higher and has increased more rapidly among men. Between 1970 and 1983, the age-standardized[2] incidence rate for men rose 27%, from 243 cases per 100,000 men to 309; for women, the cancer rate rose 16%, from 216 cases per 100,000 women to 250.

There has been considerably less change in mortality from cancer. The cancer mortality rate for women was stable between 1970 and 1986, while there was a small increase, about 8%, in the rate for men.

The cancer mortality rate is also higher among men than women. In 1986, there were 168 cancer deaths for every 100,000 men, compared to 111 for every 100,000 women.

The pattern of increasing incidence combined with stable mortality is not unique to Canada, but has occurred in other countries as well. Some of the increase in Canada's incidence rate, however, is attributable to more comprehensive registration, more thorough diagnostic procedures, and changes in the definition of an invasive malignancy. Nevertheless, it appears that better medical treatment, which has improved survival for some types of cancer, is at least partly responsible for differences in cancer incidence and mortality trends.

Different trends for different cancers

Trends for the most common types of cancer have differed. Since the early 1970s, rates for lung and prostate cancer have increased, while those for breast cancer have remained relatively stable. In the same period, rates for stomach and uterine cancer have declined, while colorectal cancer has been characterized by increasing incidence but declining mortality.

Lung cancer

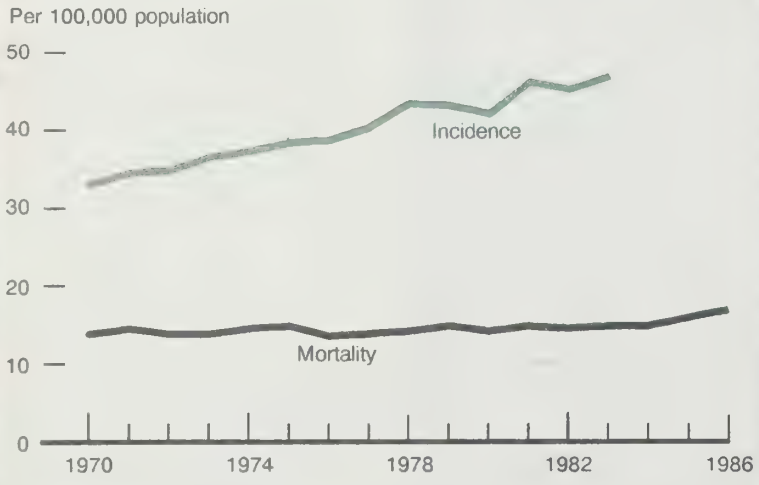
The incidence of lung cancer, overall the most common type of cancer in Canada, has increased among both men and women since the early 1970s.

Lung cancer mortality among men, however, appears to have peaked in 1984. Because current levels of lung cancer mortality are closely related to past smoking rates, the decline in smoking first seen

[2] All rates are age-standardized, that is, they are calculated to show what they would have been if the age distribution was the same over time. The world population was used as a basis for the standardization. For more detail on the methodology and data, interested readers may refer to *Canadian Cancer Statistics, 1988*, produced jointly by Statistics Canada and the Canadian Cancer Society. Detailed data on cancer incidence, mortality, and hospital morbidity are available in *Cancer in Canada*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-207.



Incidence and mortality rates for prostate cancer, 1970-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

among Canadian men 20 years ago is just beginning to result in reduced mortality from this disease. This pattern has already been observed in several other countries, most notably Denmark and Scotland, where actual declines in male lung cancer rates have occurred.

Both incidence and mortality rates for lung cancer have increased rapidly among women, although rates for women are still only about a third those of men. In addition, while lung cancer rates appear to have peaked for men, they are expected to continue to increase among women for the next several years, before they too are expected to decline. Thus, women's lung cancer rates are not expected to ever equal those currently experienced by men.

The difference between lung cancer trends of men and women are linked to smoking habits. Women began smoking in large numbers about 20 years after men. As well, smoking rates among women, particularly young women, are falling much more slowly than among men. Conse-

quently, the full impact of smoking on female lung cancer rates has yet to be felt.

Prostate cancer

Rates for prostate cancer, the second most prevalent cancer in men, have also risen since the early 1970s. The incidence of this disease, however, has increased more rapidly than mortality.

Much of the increased incidence of prostate cancer, though, is generally attributed to improved diagnostic procedures and to more reporting of its discovery during an autopsy. Cancer of the prostate is very much a disease of elderly men, and it is common to find evidence of this cancer when an autopsy is conducted. As a result, less serious forms of this disease, which in the past may have remained undetected, are being identified and reported.

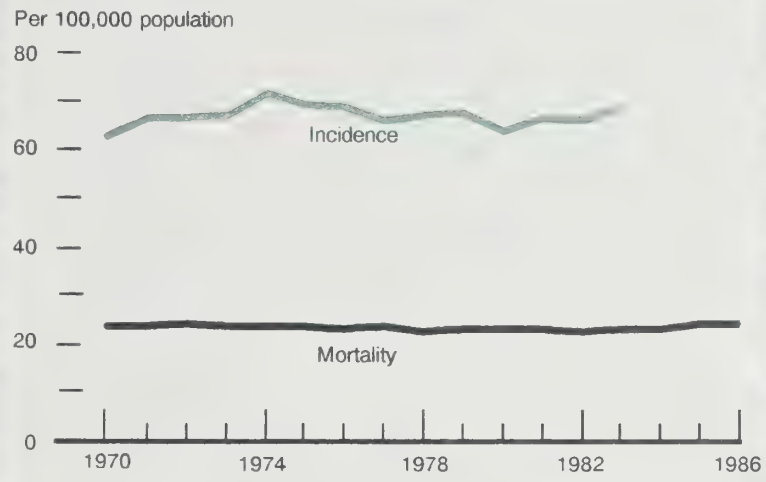
Breast cancer

Breast cancer, currently the most common type of cancer among women, accounts for about one out of every 20 deaths of women in Canada. As well, almost one Canadian woman in 10 will develop breast cancer during her lifetime.

Both incidence and mortality rates for breast cancer were approximately the same in the mid-1980s as in the early 1970s. The incidence rate for breast cancer, however, did fluctuate in this period. Although these fluctuations could have been random, they closely reflect patterns reported in the United States. In 1974, for example, the breast cancer incidence rate jumped suddenly in both countries. This has generally been attributed to increased detection of breast cancer following widespread publicity about the diagnosis of this condition in several prominent American women.

Despite intensive research, little has been discovered regarding risk factors for breast cancer which would be of use in planning preventive programs.

Incidence and mortality rates for breast cancer, 1970-1986



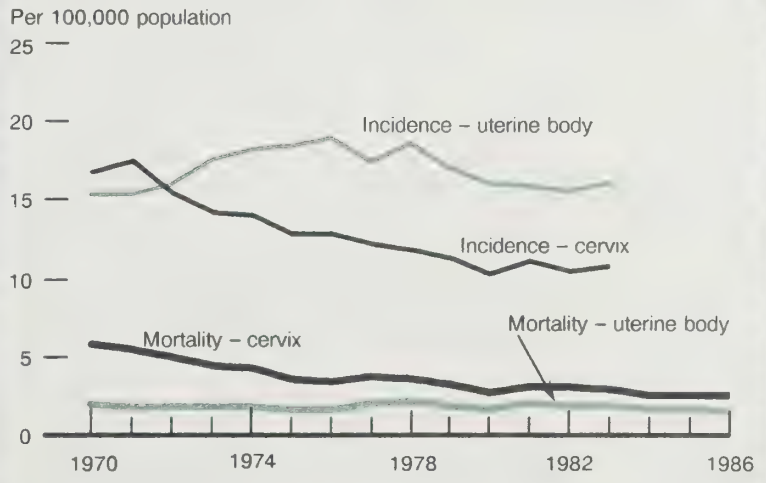
Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

Stomach cancer

Stomach cancer rates have fallen since the early 1970s. The death rate due to this disease was nearly cut in half for both men and women between 1970 and 1986. Incidence rates also declined, though not as sharply. Both incidence and mortality rates for stomach cancer are more than twice as high for men as for women.

The decline in stomach cancer in Canada is similar to that reported in other industrial countries and is generally attributed to changes in diet.

Incidence and mortality rates for cancer of the uterine body and cervix, 1970-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

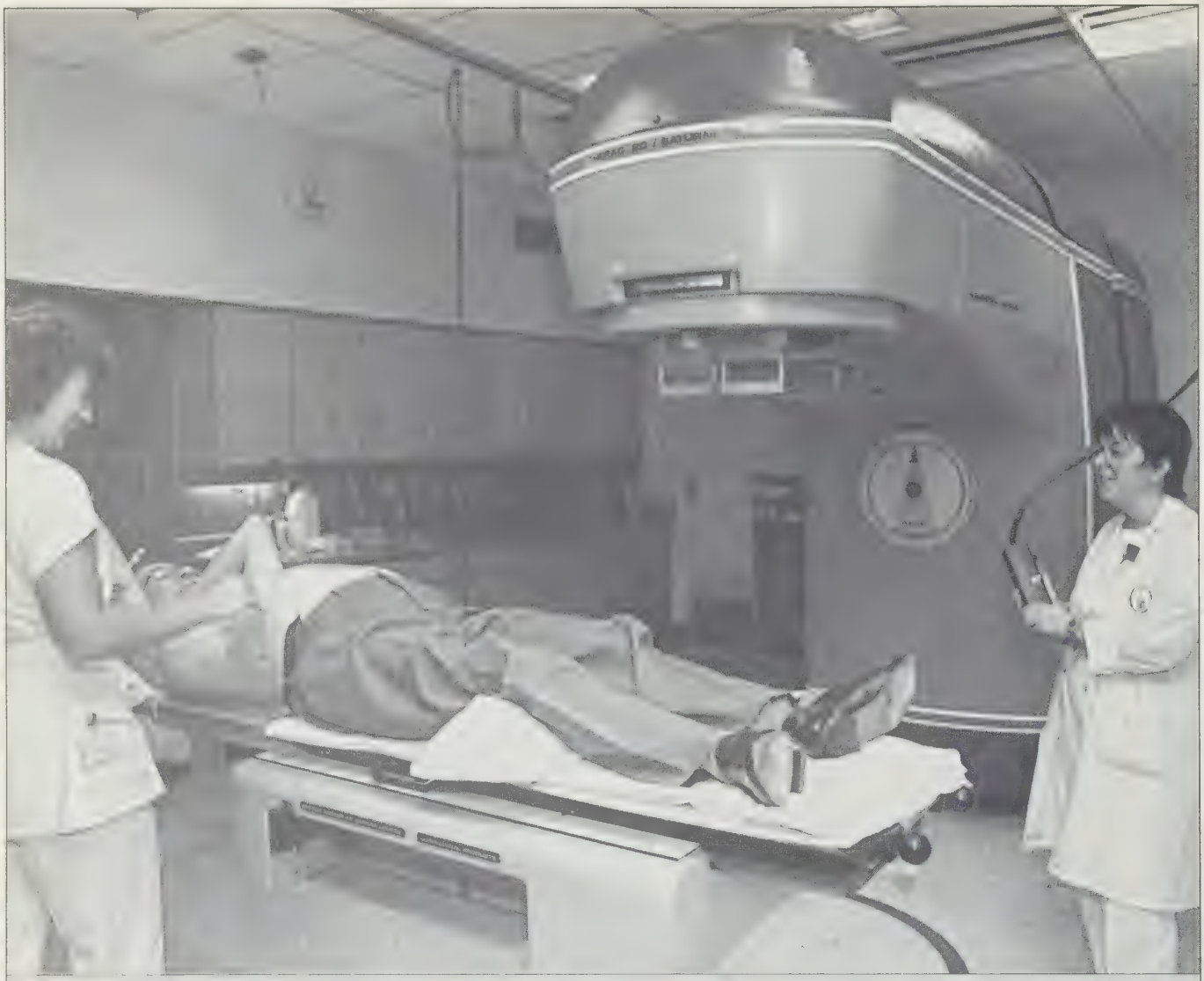
Cancer of the uterine body and cervix

There have been sharp drops in both incidence and mortality rates for cervical cancer since the early 1970s. These declines are considered to be at least partially attributable to screening programs such as Pap smears, although some of the decline may be due to other factors.

Despite the overall drop in cervical cancer rates, the incidence rate for this disease has been stable in recent years. This levelling off reflects rising rates of cervical cancer among young women.

The mortality rate for cancer of the uterine body has also declined since the early 1970s. The incidence rate for this condition, however, was roughly the same in 1983 as in 1970, although there was a temporary increase in the incidence of this disease in the 1970s. This rise was also observed in other countries and has been related to use of replacement estrogen therapy at menopause.

► *Continued page 13*



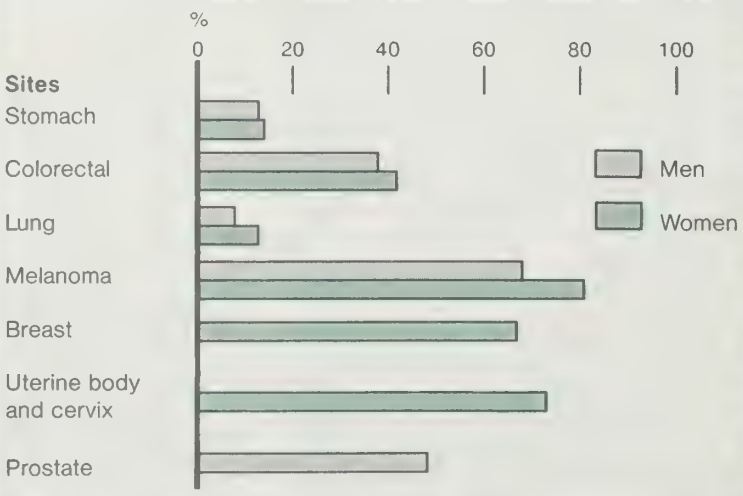
Cancer survival rates

Survival rates represent the percentage of cancer cases diagnosed between 1979 and 1981 who are still alive five years after the diagnosis. They are crude rates in that deaths may have resulted from other causes.

Survival rates for different types of cancer are available only for Alberta, but these are likely typical of current Canadian experience. There appear to be three distinct categories when survival from the major types of cancer is considered.

Breast and uterine cancer and melanoma are characterized by relatively high survival rates, while colorectal and prostate cancer show moderate survival levels. Survival rates for lung and stomach cancer, on the other hand, are very low.

Five year cancer survival rates for cases diagnosed, 1979-1981, Alberta



Source: Alberta Cancer Registry.

Colorectal cancer

Trends for the incidence and mortality of colorectal cancer, which includes cancer of the large intestine and rectum, have diverged since the early 1970s. The incidence rate for this type of cancer has risen, while the mortality rate has fallen.

Both incidence and mortality rates for colorectal cancer are higher in men than in women. Moreover, incidence rates have increased faster in men, while mortality rates have declined more rapidly in women.

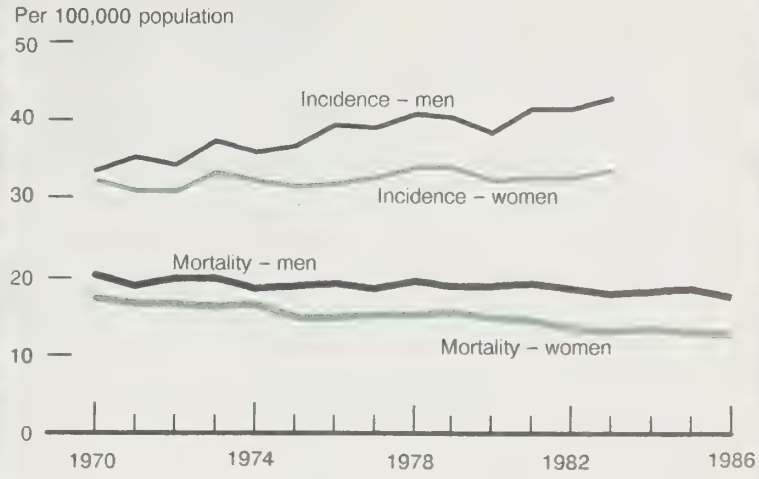
As with breast cancer, risk factors for this type of cancer are not well understood, although diet has been implicated.

Melanoma

While melanoma skin cancer is not one of the leading forms of cancer, it should be mentioned because the incidence of this disease nearly doubled among both men and women between 1970 and 1983. Mortality from melanoma also increased significantly among men, rising over 70% between 1970 and 1986. The mortality rate for this condition also rose for women in this period, but by a much smaller margin, just 20%.

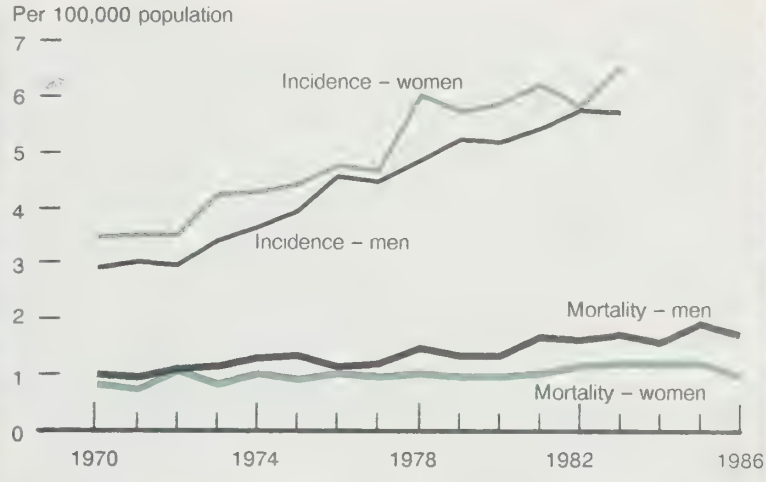
The major risk factor for melanoma is exposure to sunlight, although the exact nature of the relationship is not well understood.

Incidence and mortality rates for colorectal cancer, 1970-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

Incidence and mortality rates for melanoma, 1970-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

Smoking patterns of men and women

Overall, men are more likely than women to smoke. In 1986, 31% of men compared with 26% of women were regular cigarette smokers.

For people under age 25, though, a slightly higher percentage of women than men smoke regularly. In 1986, 32% of women compared with 31% of men aged 20-24 smoked cigarettes daily. The pattern was similar among people aged 15-19.

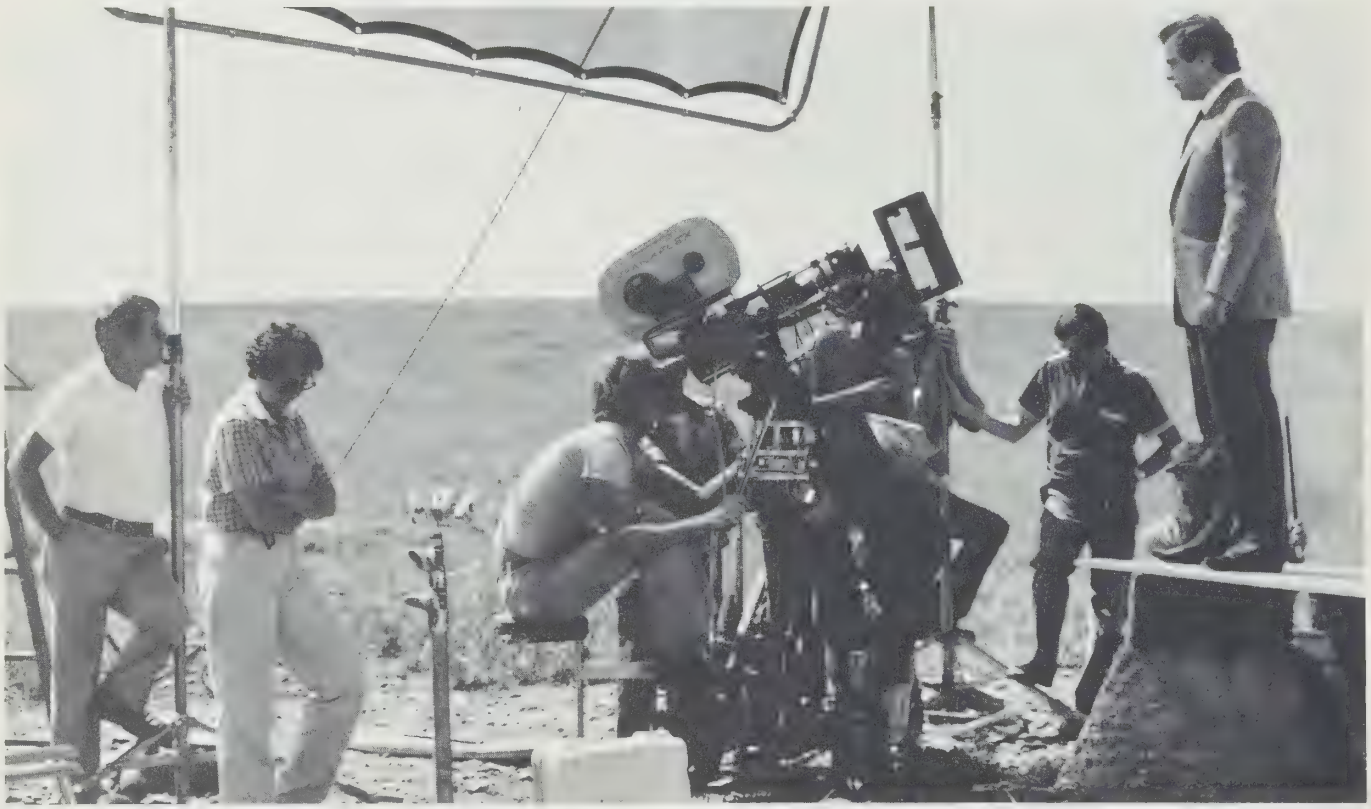
The fact that slightly more women than men aged 20-24 were regular smokers in 1986 is a change from the late 1970s when a higher proportion of men than women smoked. This reversal occurred because the percentage of men in this age group who smoked regularly declined more than it did among women. Between 1978-79 and 1986, the proportion of men aged 20-24 who smoked regularly fell almost 18 percentage points; for women in this age group, the decline was 13 percentage points.

Smoking rates also declined sharply for both men and women aged 15-19, falling over 15 percentage points for each in the period from 1978-79 to 1986. Smoking fell in all other age groups, with the exception of women aged 65 and over, however, these declines were considerably smaller than those for men aged 20-24 and men and women aged 15-19.

Both authors work at Statistics Canada. **Leslie Gaudette** *is an analyst with the Health Division;* **Georgia Roberts** *is a methodologist with the Social Surveys Methodology Division.*

THE FILM INDUSTRY IN CANADA

by Carol Strike



The introduction of television in the 1950s, and the growth in popularity of home entertainment innovations such as VCRs and pay television in more recent years have had a profound impact on the movie industry in Canada. Movie attendance has dropped substantially, and there has been a major reduction in the number of motion picture theatres in Canada. As well, ownership of movie theatres is becoming increasingly concentrated. At the same time, the vast majority of feature films shown in this country are foreign.

Going to the movies: a declining pastime

Perhaps the most striking trend related to the film industry has been the sharp decline in movie attendance in Canada. In the early 1950s, close to 250 million movie tickets were sold each year; in 1985, there were just under 75 million paid admissions to movie theatres.

Most of the decline in movie attendance occurred during the 1950s. The annual number of paid admissions to theatres had fallen below the 100 million mark by 1961; then throughout the 1960s, 1970s, and early 1980s, total movie attendance ranged between 80 and 90 million.

The decline in movie attendance is even more dramatic when expressed in per capita terms. In 1985, Canadians went to the movies an average of fewer than 3 times per person. In comparison, in the early 1950s, they had attended an annual average of around 17 movies per person. Again, most of this decline took place in the 1950s. Average movie attendance has continued to decline in recent years, falling from 3.7 movies per person in 1980 to 2.9 in 1985.

Attendance at drive-in theatres has also fallen, although the trend followed a somewhat different pattern than that for regular movie theatres. Drive-in attendance did not peak until 1976 when these theatres attracted a total of 13 million viewers. Attendance at drive-ins, however, declined substantially in the subsequent decade, such that by 1985, total paid admissions to these theatres had fallen below 6 million.

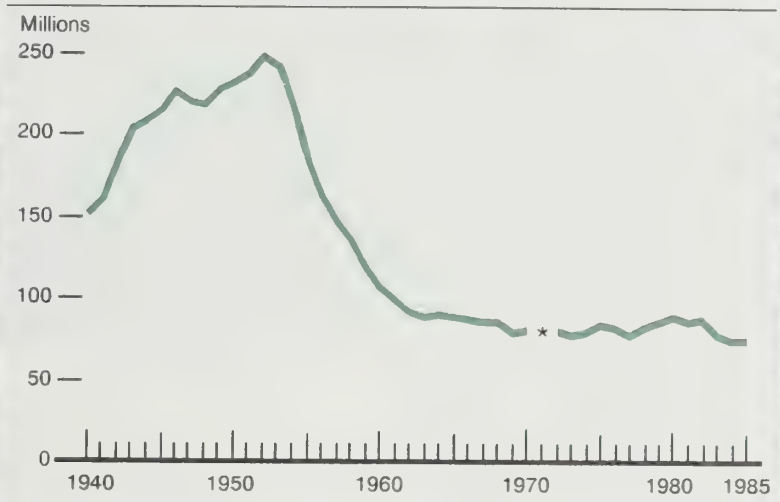
Theatre attendance statistics no longer represent the number of movies that Canadians actually see each year. Movies are common fare on regular television, while VCR ownership and subscriptions to pay television continue to increase. In 1986, virtually all Canadian homes (99%) had televisions, and two-thirds (65%) were hooked up to cable. At the same time, more than a third (35%) of all homes had VCRs, and 10% subscribed to pay television.

Theatres and drive-ins closing

The drop-off in movie attendance has resulted in the closure of hundreds of theatres. The number of regular motion picture theatres declined from a peak of 1,950 in 1955 to 788 in 1985; the number of drive-in theatres has also fallen, from a high of 315 in 1975 to 219 in 1985.

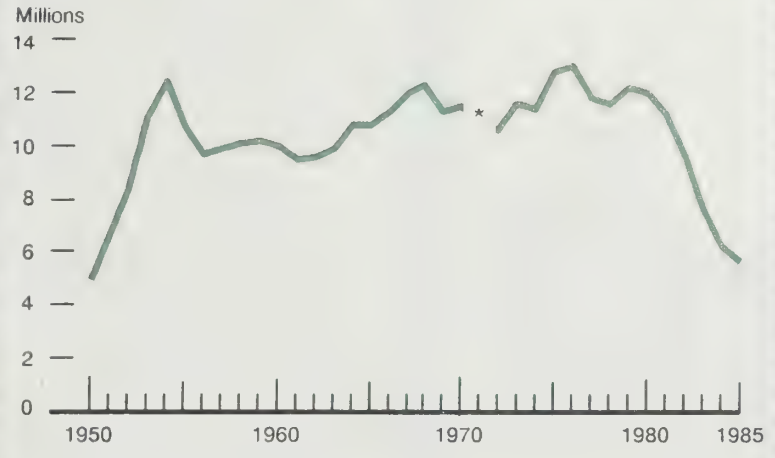
While the overall number of movie theatres has declined, the number of screens has increased. This is because of the growing number of multi-screened theatres. In 1985, there were 1,450 screens in Canada, about 1.8 per theatre. This was up from fewer than 1,200 screens in 1972. The trend toward multi-screened theatres also occurred at drive-ins, although the overall number of drive-in screens fell from 328 in 1979 to 279 in 1985.

Paid admissions to movie theatres, 1940-1985



* No survey was conducted for 1971.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 63-207 and 87-204, and Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

Paid admissions to drive-in theatres, 1950-1985



* No survey was conducted for 1971.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 63-207 and 87-204, and Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

Concentration of theatre ownership increasing

A growing proportion of movie theatres are operated by chains. In 1985, theatre chains owned an estimated 64% of all regular motion picture theatres and made 88% of all operating revenues. These proportions were up from 61% ownership and 86% of revenues in 1980.

A somewhat different trend is emerging for drive-in theatres. Chains owned 54% of all drive-ins and made 77% of operating revenue in 1985. These figures were down from 1980 when chains owned 63% of all drive-ins and generated 80% of revenues.

Few Canadian films

Only a small proportion of feature films shown in Canada are of Canadian origin. In 1983, Canadian productions made up just 14% of all new features shown that year. This figure, however, represents an increase from the 1972-1982 period when domestic productions made up only 4% of all new features released in Canada during this period.

Most new films released in Canada are from the United States. Over the past quarter century, between a third and half of all new features came from the United States each year; in 1983, 54% were American.

Most of the remaining new movies that have been shown in Canada originated in France or Italy. Between 1972 and 1983, 19% of new releases were from France, while 9% were made in Italy.

The number of new feature films (75 minutes or more) shown in Canada has dropped sharply in recent years. Between 1979 and 1983, the number of new releases fell from 970 to 474. In fact, the 1983 total was the smallest annual number of new releases in the past 25 years.

The film production industry

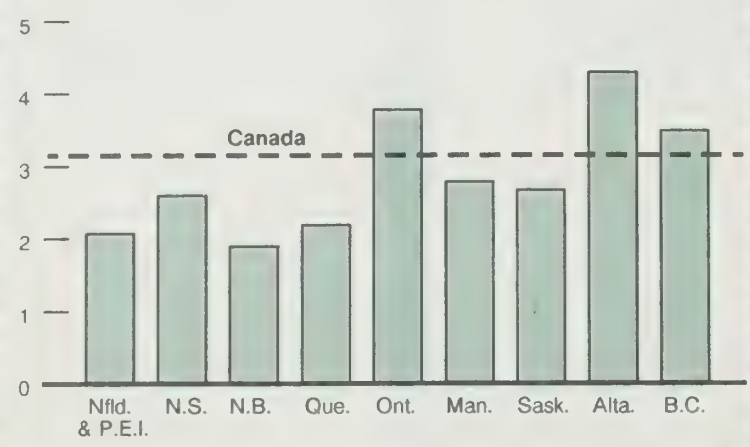
There were over 500 film production companies in Canada in 1985. Only 11% of



Movie going varies widely by province

Albertans were Canada's most avid movie-goers in 1985, averaging a total of over four paid admissions per person to theatres and drive-ins. Residents of Ontario and British Columbia followed with close to four admissions per person. On the other hand, residents of New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, and Quebec were relatively infrequent movie-goers, averaging only about two admissions per person.

Total paid admissions per person to movie and drive-in theatres, by province, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

these producers, however, specialized in feature films and theatrical shorts. The largest proportion of film producers in Canada, over 40%, made industrial and educational films, while 31% specialized in television programs and commercials. The other 17% of producers either did not have, or did not report, a specialization.

Television programs and commercials generated the greatest share of film production revenue. While fewer than a third of film producers specialized in these areas in 1985, they made 62% of all operating revenue. There has been a shift, however, in the distribution of revenue generated by television programs and commercials. The share of all film production revenue coming from commercials fell from 49% in 1980 to 34% in 1985; in the same period, revenue from TV programs increased from 19% of the total to 28%.

Of the remaining film revenue in 1985, 22% came from the production of industrial and educational films, 8% came from feature films, and 3% came from theatrical shorts. The final 5% came from other sources.

Carol Strike *is a staff writer with* Canadian Social Trends.

ANNUAL UPDATE ON LABOUR FORCE TRENDS

by David Gower

Last year was the fifth consecutive year of economic growth in Canada dating back to the end of the last recession. In the labour market, this growth translated into an increase in the number of Canadians with jobs. In 1987, almost 12 million people were employed; this was a 2.8% increase over 1986, and continued a trend that has seen total employment rise between 2.5% and 2.9% each year since 1984.

Throughout much of the last decade, the number of part-time jobs grew at a faster rate than total full-time employment. This was not the case in 1987, however, when the number of full-time jobs rose 3.1% compared with an increase of only 0.7% for part-time employment.

The slow growth in part-time employment in 1987 was linked to a 5.7% drop in the number of people working part-time because they were unable to find a full-time job. While this figure declined, there were still almost half a million Canadians working part-time last year because it was the only work they could find. The number of people working part-time voluntarily, though, rose 3.2% in 1987, virtually the same increase as for full-time workers.

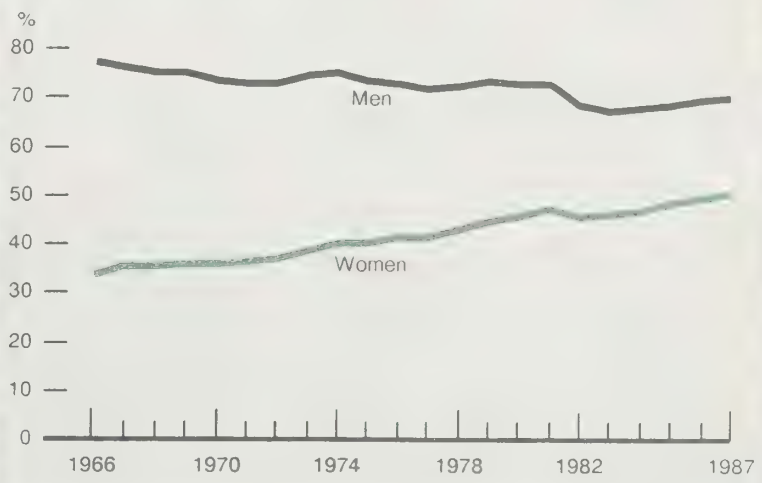
In keeping with a long-standing trend, employment growth was higher among women than men in 1987. The number of employed women rose 3.7% compared to an increase of 2.0% in the number of men with jobs.

More than half of all women are now employed outside the home. Overall, 50.9% of women had jobs in 1987, up from 49.7% a year earlier. As recently as 1973, fewer than 40% of women had been employed.

On the other hand, the percentage of men with jobs in 1987 (70.1%) was below levels recorded in the early 1970s. In 1973,



Percentage of men and women who were employed, 1966-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201.

for example, 74.3% of men were employed. In the past few years, though, the proportion of men with jobs has been rising from a post-recession low of 67.4% in 1983.

The percentage of men aged 55-64 who were employed declined in 1987, from 63.5% in 1986 to 61.8%. While this represents the continuation of a long-term trend — in the mid-1970s, for example, over 75% of men in this age range had been employed — last year's decline was particularly large.

Service sector continues rapid growth

As has been the case for several decades, employment grew at a faster rate in the service sector of the economy than in the goods-producing industries in 1987. Total service employment rose 3.0% compared to 2.1% in the goods-producing sector. In 1987, 70.8% of all jobs were in the service sector; this was up from 67.5% in 1981.

While employment has grown in the goods-producing industries during the last several years, the total number of Canadians working in this sector in 1987 was still down close to 100,000 from the pre-recession total in 1981. In contrast, total service sector employment in 1987 was more than one million above the 1981 level.

Unemployment falling

The unemployment rate continued to decline last year. In 1987, 8.9% of the labour force was unemployed, down from 9.6% in 1986 and 11.9% in 1983. Still, in 1987, almost 1.2 million Canadians were unemployed, and the unemployment rate remained above the pre-recession level of 7.5% recorded in 1980 and 1981.

Declines in unemployment have been particularly large among young Canadians in recent years. In 1983, the unemployment rate for men aged 15-24 was 22.4%, while for women in this age range it was 17.0%. By 1987, these figures had fallen to 14.8% for men and 12.5% for women.

Unemployment rates have also declined among the population aged 25 and over, although not as dramatically as among younger workers. Between 1983 and 1987, the unemployment rate for men in this age range fell from 9.2% to 7.0%; among women, the decline was from 9.6% to 8.4%.

Unemployment levels continue to vary widely by province. In 1987, the unemployment rate ranged from 6.1% in Ontario to 18.6% in Newfoundland. Unemployment rates were also above the national average (8.9%) in Prince Edward Island (13.3%), New Brunswick (13.2%), Nova

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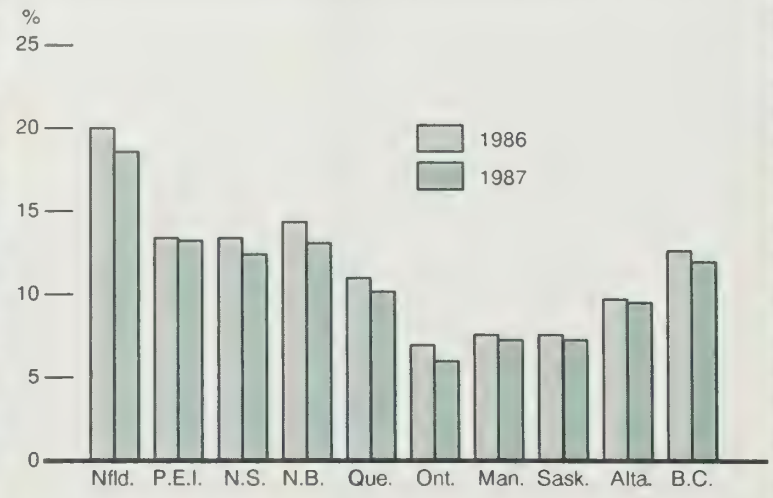


Unemployment rate, 1966-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201

Unemployment rate, by province, 1986 and 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-201.

LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, ANNUAL AVERAGES, 1946-1987

	Population aged 15 and over (000s)	Labour Force (000s)			Participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Employment/population ratio (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950[1]	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966[2]	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	61.1	7.1	56.7
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	61.6	8.1	56.6
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	62.7	8.3	57.5
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	63.4	7.4	58.7
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	64.1	7.5	59.3
1981	18,375	11,904	11,006	898	64.8	7.5	59.9
1982	18,664	11,958	10,644	1,314	64.1	11.0	57.0
1983	18,917	12,183	10,734	1,448	64.4	11.9	56.7
1984	19,148	12,399	11,000	1,399	64.8	11.3	57.4
1985	19,372	12,639	11,311	1,328	65.2	10.5	58.4
1986	19,594	12,870	11,634	1,236	65.7	9.6	59.4
1987	19,825	13,121	11,955	1,167	66.2	8.9	60.3

[1] Includes Newfoundland beginning in 1950.

[2] Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

The year at a glance: labour market changes in 1987

	1986	1987	Percentage change 1986-1987
Population aged 15 and over	19,594,000	19,825,000	1.2
Employment	11,634,000	11,955,000	2.8
Men	6,657,000	6,793,000	2.0
Women	4,977,000	5,161,000	3.7
Percentage employed	59.4	60.3	
Men	69.5	70.1	
Women	49.7	50.9	
Part-time employment	1,810,000	1,822,000	0.7
Men	520,000	514,000	-1.1
Women	1,290,000	1,308,000	1.4
Involuntary part-time[1]	514,000	485,000	-5.7
Employment by industrial sector			
Goods-producing	3,417,000	3,489,000	2.1
Service	8,217,000	8,465,000	3.0
Unemployed	1,236,000	1,167,000	-5.6
Unemployment rate (%)	9.6	8.9	
% unemployed one year or more	9.0	9.4	
Discouraged workers[2]	60,000	48,000	-19.6

[1] Unable to find full-time work.
[2] Not in the labour force and no longer seeking work because of a belief that no work is available.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001.

Scotia (12.5%), British Columbia (12.0%), Quebec (10.3%), and Alberta (9.6%). Unemployment rates, though, fell in all provinces in 1987, with the largest declines generally occurring in the central and eastern provinces.

The number of Canadians unemployed for a year or longer declined marginally last year. There were 1.9% fewer persons who had been unemployed for 12 months or more in 1987 than a year earlier.

The number of people not in the labour force because they believed no work was available dropped by almost 20% in 1987 to 48,000. This was the lowest number of so-called discouraged workers since 1977.

David Gower *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

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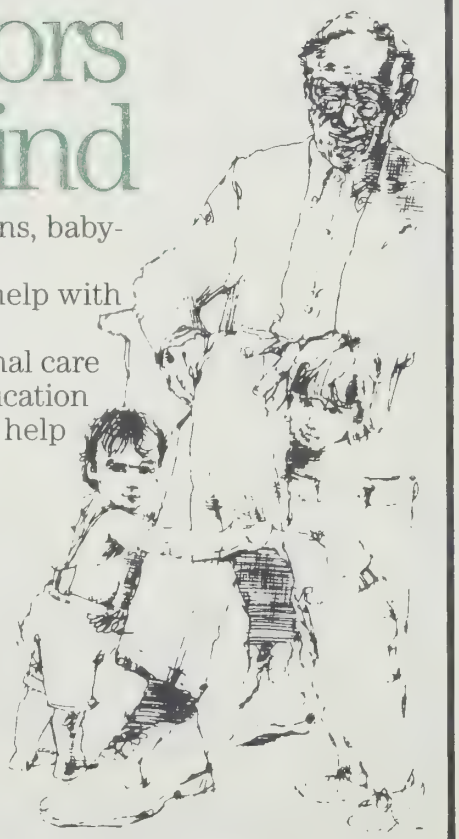
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TRAVEL WITHIN CANADA

by Laurie McDougall

Figures from the Canadian Travel Survey[1] indicate that we are, indeed, a nation of travellers. In 1986, for example, Canadians made an average of almost four overnight trips[2] per person to destinations within the country.

The amount of domestic travel by Canadians, however, dipped sharply in the early 1980s, largely as a result of the recession. Between 1979 and 1984, the annual number of overnight trips fell 13%, from 77 million to 67 million. The level of domestic travel recovered somewhat by 1986, when Canadians went on more than 75 million trips. This, however, was still 2% below the number of trips taken in 1979.

The difference in levels of domestic travel between 1979 and 1986 is even greater when considered on a per capita basis. The annual number of trips per person aged 15 and over declined 12%, from 4.3 in 1979 to 3.8 in 1986. The 1986 figure, however, was up from a low of 3.5 in 1984.

Westerners most likely to travel

The likelihood of travelling varied considerably for residents of different provinces,[3] with people from the Prairie region, by far, the most likely to travel. In 1986, Saskatchewan residents made an



[1] This survey is carried out by Statistics Canada on behalf of Tourism Canada. Data were collected in 1979, 1980, 1982, 1984 and 1986.

[2] A domestic trip was defined as an overnight trip within Canada with a one-way distance of at least 80 km.

[3] Prince Edward Island has not been included in most of the provincial comparisons. Because the definition of domestic travel refers only to trips with a one-way distance of 80 km, few trips within this province would be far enough to qualify.

average of 6.0 overnight trips per person within Canada, while the figure was 5.7 for Alberta residents and 4.9 for those living in Manitoba.

Residents of Newfoundland, on the other hand, were the least likely to travel. People from this province made just over 2 trips per person in 1986. In the remaining provinces, the average number of trips per person ranged between 3 and 4.

Interprovincial travel

Most domestic trips take place within the traveller's own province. During the 1979-1986 period, in-province trips accounted for 80% or more of all domestic travel. Still, in 1986, about one in five domestic trips (over 14 million in total) were to another province.

Travellers from New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and the Prairie region were the most likely to set out on interprovincial journeys. In 1986, 36% of all domestic overnight trips taken by residents of New Brunswick and 28% of those by Nova Scotians were to another province. At the same time, more than a quarter of domestic trips taken by people from Manitoba (27%), Saskatchewan (26%), and Alberta (26%) also were to other provinces.

Quebec, Ontario, and British Columbia, on the other hand, were characterized by below-average levels of interprovincial travel. Fewer than 17% of trips taken by people from these provinces in 1986 involved crossing a provincial boundary.

Newfoundland, perhaps because of its relative isolation, had the lowest level of out-of-province travel of any province. Just 12% of domestic trips taken by Newfoundlanders were to other parts of Canada.

The destination of travellers who leave their own province is usually an adjacent province. This is especially true for travellers from Quebec and Ontario. In 1986, for example, 58% of out-of-province travellers from Ontario went to Quebec, while 82% of those from Quebec went to Ontario.

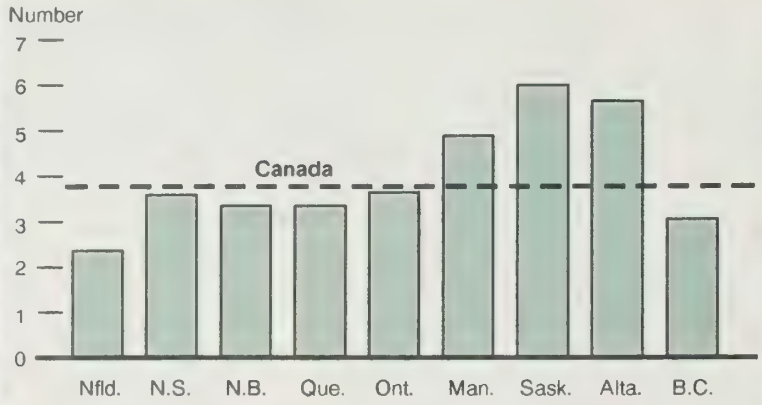
There was also a substantial exchange of travellers between Alberta and British Columbia. In 1986, each was the destination of about 60% of the other's out-of-province traffic.

The pattern was similar in the Maritimes where 79% of out-of-province travellers from Prince Edward Island and more than half of those from both Nova Scotia and New Brunswick went to another Maritime province.

More business travel

There has been a particularly large increase in the amount of business travel in Canada

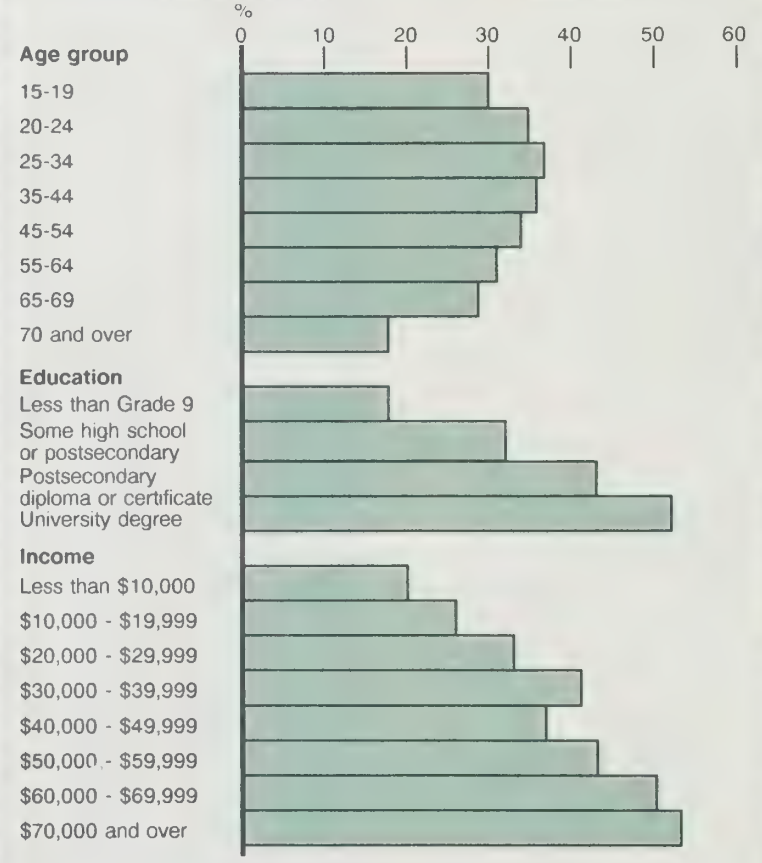
Domestic overnight trips per person, by province,[1] 1986



[1] Prince Edward Island has not been included. Because the definition of domestic travel refers only to trips with a one-way distance of 80 km, few trips within P.E.I. would be far enough to qualify

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-504

Percentage of people travelling,[1] by selected characteristics, 1986



[1] Percentage of population in each group taking an overnight trip within Canada during any quarter of the year.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-504.



in recent years. While the number of non-business trips declined 6% between 1979 and 1986, the number of business trips increased 26% in the same period. As a result, business trips accounted for 15% of all domestic travel in 1986, up from 11% in 1979.

A relatively high proportion of business travel is interprovincial. In 1986, about 30% of business trips compared with 17% of other domestic trips were from one province to another.

The growth of business travel has contributed to several other changes in domestic travel patterns including more weekday trips, more flying, and greater hotel usage.

Vacations and visits

Roughly 80% of all trips within Canada in the 1980s were either pleasure trips or visits to friends or relatives. The distribution of the overall share of domestic travel between these types of travel, however, shifted somewhat during this period. Pleasure trips made up 45% of all travel in 1980, but only 39% in 1986. In the same period, the proportion of trips taken to visit friends or relatives increased from 36% to 40%.

Home away from home

Because of the high percentage of trips that are visits, a large proportion of all travel nights are spent with friends or relatives. In both 1979 and 1986, over half (51%) of all overnight stays in which the type of accommodations was known were with family or friends.

Hotels and motels account for a growing share of overnight stays. In 1986, 23% of all travel nights were spent in these types of accommodations; this was up from 18% in 1979. All of this increase was due to growth in hotel usage. Between 1979 and 1986, the number of overnight stays in hotels rose 60%, while the number of motel stays dropped 6%.

Most of the remaining travel nights are spent in either cottages or campgrounds. While the proportion of overnight stays in cottages remained relatively stable at around 18% in the 1980s, the share accounted for by campground usage declined from 10% in 1979 to 7% in 1986.

In the summer, on the weekend ...

Not surprisingly, summer is the most popular season for travel in Canada. Just over a third of all domestic travel takes place in July, August or September. Another quarter of trips occur during the spring, while winter and fall each account for roughly a fifth of all travel.

Most trips, approximately six out of ten, are taken on the weekend. The proportion of weekend trips, however, slipped from 66% in 1984 to 60% in 1986. The growth of business travel was partly responsible for this trend.

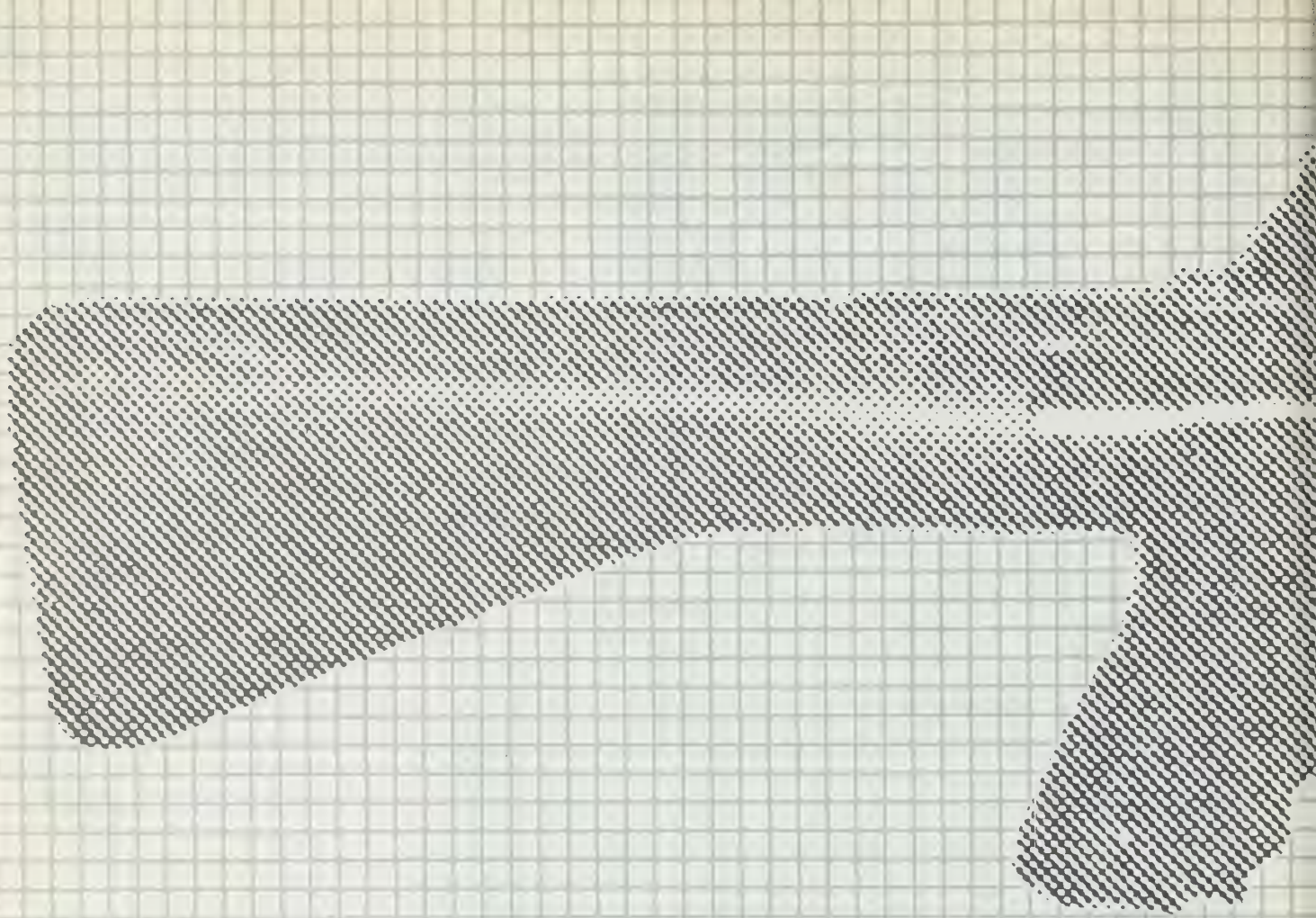
Who travels?

Except for people aged 70 and over, a large percentage of Canadians in all age groups travel. In each quarter of 1986, around 35% of people aged 20-54 made at least one domestic trip. The travel rate was somewhat lower for those aged 15-19 and 55-69; still, an average of around 30% of people in these age ranges travelled each quarter.

Canadians aged 70 and over, on the other hand, were less likely to travel than younger people. In 1986, only 18% of people in this age range travelled each quarter.

High levels of education and income were also associated with high rates of travel. In 1986, over half of university graduates (52%) travelled within Canada each quarter. This was three times greater than the rate for people with only elementary education (18%). Similarly, the travel rate for people with incomes of $70,000 and over was 53%, compared with 20% for those with annual incomes of less than $10,000.

Laurie McDougall *is an analyst with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.*



VIOLENT CRIME has risen in Canada. Growth in the incidence of this type of criminal activity, however, has been similar to increases in other types of crime, and violent offences continue to account for only a small proportion of all crime.

by Holly Johnson

Several sources indicate that many Canadians are apprehensive about crime. In 1981, 40% of respondents to the Canadian Urban Victimization Survey said they felt unsafe walking alone in their own neighbourhood at night. The highest levels of fear were reported by elderly people and women: 59% of those aged 65 and older and 56% of women felt unsafe walking alone at night. In comparison, 37% of those under 65 and just 18% of men expressed this fear.

A 1984 Decima Quarterly Report *poll found a similar level of concern among Canadians. More than 4 in 10 (44%) of those surveyed agreed with the statement: "I don't feel safe when I go out alone at night in my neighborhood." Again, people aged 65 and over (58%) and women (57%) were more likely to express this fear than were those under age 65 (44%) or men (32%).*

In addition, less serious offences, such as simple assaults, make up the majority of all violent crime. Few violent offences involve a weapon or result in bodily harm to the victim. As well, increases in the less serious violent offences have accounted for most of the overall growth in violent crime, particularly in recent years. In fact, incidence rates for more serious offences, such as homicide, attempted murder, aggravated sexual assault, and robbery, have either fallen or been stable in the last several years.

Violent crime[1] rate rising

The incidence of violent crime has increased substantially in Canada. Between 1962 and 1986, the number of crimes of violence recorded by the police rose from 221 per 100,000 population to 801, a 264% increase. This increase, however, was similar to that for other types of crime. The property crime rate, for example, rose 194% in the same period.

Trends for violent and property crime, though, differed in recent years. Rates for both increased by just over 200% between 1962 and 1982; however, between 1982 and 1986, the violent crime rate continued to increase, rising 17%, while the property crime rate fell 3%.

[1] Violent offences include homicide (murder, manslaughter, and infanticide), attempted murder, sexual assault, assault, and robbery.

Violent and property crime rates, 1962-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205



Crime statistics

Official statistics on crime in Canada are obtained from the Uniform Crime Reporting system which counts all criminal incidents recorded by the police. However, because many crimes are never reported to the police, official statistics represent only a portion of all crimes committed. The Canadian Urban Victimization Survey estimated, for example, that in 1981, only 34% of violent crimes were reported to the police. Victims tend not to report violent incidents because they feel the offence is minor, the police likely can't do anything about it, reporting would be inconvenient, or the offence is a personal matter and of no concern to the police. Fear of revenge from the offender, and a concern with the attitudes of criminal justice workers toward this type of incident are additional reasons why victims of sexual assault often do not involve the police.

Official crime statistics underrepresent even the actual occurrence of criminal activity reported to police. This is because when an incident involves several separate offences, only the most serious is recorded. If, for example, an incident involves sexual assault, break and enter, and wilfull damage to property, only sexual assault, the most serious offence, is recorded.

The way police record violent and property crimes also differs. For violent crimes, one offence is recorded for every victim in each incident. For property crimes, though, one offence is recorded for every separate incident.

Still, violent crime accounts for only a small proportion of all crime in Canada. In 1986, violent crimes made up just 9% of all Criminal Code offences, a figure similar to that recorded throughout the period since 1962.

The majority of violent crimes are non-aggravated assaults. Assaults made up three-quarters (76%) of all violent crime in 1986 and most were the least serious type of assault. In 1986, close to 70% of assaults were simple assaults, while just 20% involved bodily harm or the presence of a weapon, and only 2% were aggravated assaults. The remainder were evenly split between assaults involving a peace officer and other types.

Most of the remaining violent crimes in 1986 were either sexual offences (12%) or robberies (11%). Homicides and attempted murders made up less than 1% of all violent offences that year.

As with assaults, the majority of sexual offences were the least serious type. In 1986, over 90% of all sexual assaults did not involve a weapon or result in injury to the victim.

Long-term trends for different types of violent crime have varied, with both assault and sexual assault characterized by particularly large increases. The number of non-sexual assaults per 100,000 population, for example, increased 290% between 1962 and 1986.

The incidence of rape also increased substantially. The number of rapes recorded by the police rose from 3.1 per 100,000 population in 1962 to 10.3 in 1982, an increase of 233%. In the same period, the incidence of indecent assaults, most of which are committed against women, also increased, though not as sharply as the rate for rape. Between 1962 and 1982, the indecent assault rate rose 62%, from 21 per 100,000 population to 34.

Legislation on sexual offences was changed in 1983. Rape and indecent assault were replaced in the Criminal Code with three levels of sexual assault: aggravated sexual assault, which involves endangering the

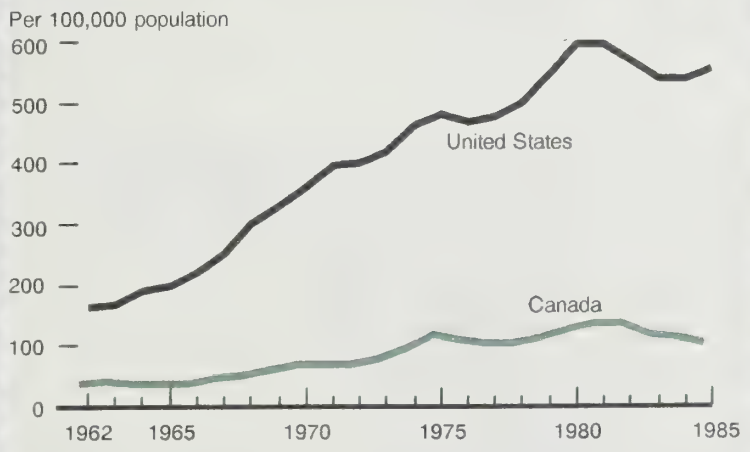
Violent crime lower in Canada than in the United States

Levels of violent crime in Canada are well below those in the United States. The incidence of the most serious types of violent crime* in the United States, for example, was more than five times the rate for Canada in 1985. That year, there were well over 500 such crimes per 100,000 population in the United States compared with just over 100 in Canada.

As well, the incidence of the most serious violent crimes has been rising in the United States in recent years, while the rate has been falling in Canada. Between 1983 and 1985, the serious violent crime rate rose 3% in the United States, but fell 10% in Canada.

* These figures refer only to serious violent crimes, whereas the data in the rest of the article include all violent offences. The Canadian rate includes homicide, attempted murder, rape and aggravated sexual assault, wounding and aggravated assault, and robbery. The U.S. rate includes murder, forcible rape, aggravated assault, and robbery.

Serious violent crime rate,[1] Canada and United States, 1962-1985



[1] The Canadian rate includes homicide, attempted murder, rape and aggravated sexual assault, wounding and aggravated assault, and robbery. The U.S. rate includes murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault.

Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205; United States, Department of Justice, *Sourcebook*.

Victims of violent crime

One of the ironies of crime in Canada is that those who express the greatest fear of crime are often the least victimized. While women and elderly people are the most likely to fear for their personal safety, they are not the groups at highest risk of victimization. In 1981, men were twice as likely as women to be victims of violent crime, and for both sexes, victimization rates were highest, by far, for young adults.

Despite a lower overall risk of victimization, women and the elderly may feel greater vulnerability to violent criminal activity because they are less able to resist an attack, and are more likely to be injured. Women experience the added danger of sexual assault, a threat uncommon to most men.

Violent crimes are most likely to occur in public places such as pubs or bars, other commercial establishments, and streets or parking lots. In 1981, 44% of sexual assaults, 50% of robberies, and 52% of assaults took place in one of these locations.

There were marked differences, though, in the circumstances surrounding assaults on men and women. While public places were the most common location for assaults on both, women were more likely than men to be assaulted in their own homes or in the home of someone else. In 1981, 23% of assaults against women, compared to 5% of those against men, occurred in their own home; another 14% of assaults on women and 10% of those against men occurred in the home of someone else. Women were also more likely than men to be assaulted by relatives: 12% of female victims compared to just 2% of men were assaulted by a family member.

life of, or maiming or disfiguring the victim; sexual assault causing bodily harm, or using or threatening to use a weapon; and simple sexual assault. Because of these changes data collected on sexual offences after 1982 are not comparable with earlier data.

The incidence of sexual offences as defined in the revised legislation has increased. Between 1983 and 1986, the number of reported sexual offences rose from 48 per 100,000 population to 80. Most of this increase, however, was accounted for by growth in the incidence of simple sexual assaults. These increased from 42 incidents per 100,000 population in 1983 to 75 in 1986.

On the other hand, the incidence of the more serious forms of sexual assault changed little in the 1983-1986 period. There were about 2 aggravated sexual assaults per 100,000 population throughout this period, while the rate for sexual assaults involving a weapon or causing bodily harm increased slightly, from 3 to 4 incidents per 100,000 population.

Overall rates for homicide, attempted murder, and robbery also increased significantly since 1962; however, the incidence of these offences has been falling in recent years.

The number of homicides rose from 1.4 per 100,000 population in 1962 to 3.1 by 1977. This rate remained fairly stable at around 2.8 between 1978 and 1985, and then dropped to 2.2 in 1986, the lowest it has been since 1971.

Rates for attempted murder increased from a low of 0.4 per 100,000 population in 1962 to a high of 3.8 in 1982, but then fell to 3.4 in 1985 and 1986.

The incidence of robbery, which involves violence or the threat of violence to steal from another person, followed a similar pattern. The number of robberies per 100,000 population rose from 27 in 1962 to 111 in 1982. Between 1982 and 1986, though, the robbery rate fell to 91.

The incidence of robberies involving guns has also declined in recent years. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of robberies using guns fell from 37 per 100,000 population to 26. In comparison, the rate for robberies involving other weapons rose slightly, from 22 to 24, in the same period.

Violent crime higher in western Canada

Rates of violent crime are generally higher in the western provinces than in central or eastern Canada. In 1986, British Columbia had the highest violent crime rate of any province, with 1,254 violent offences per 100,000 population. Manitoba (1,035), Alberta (918), and Saskatchewan (878) also had relatively high violent crime rates.

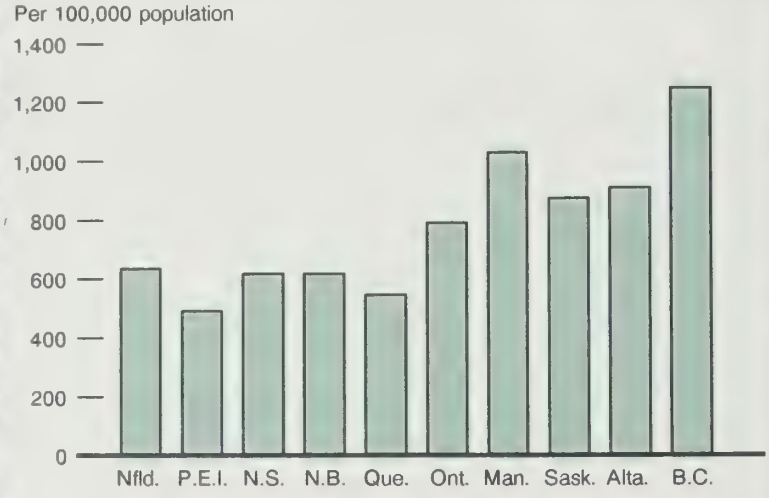
Prince Edward Island and Quebec had the lowest violent crime rates with just 499 and 550 offences per 100,000 population, respectively. In the other Atlantic provinces, the violent crime rate was just over 600, while the rate in Ontario (791) was just under the national level (801).

This pattern varies, however, for some types of violent crime. Perhaps the most interesting example is that Quebec, with the second lowest overall violent crime rate, had the highest robbery rate of any province. As well, the number of robberies using guns per 100,000 population in Quebec was more than three times greater than in the province with the next highest rate.

Violent crime in cities and towns

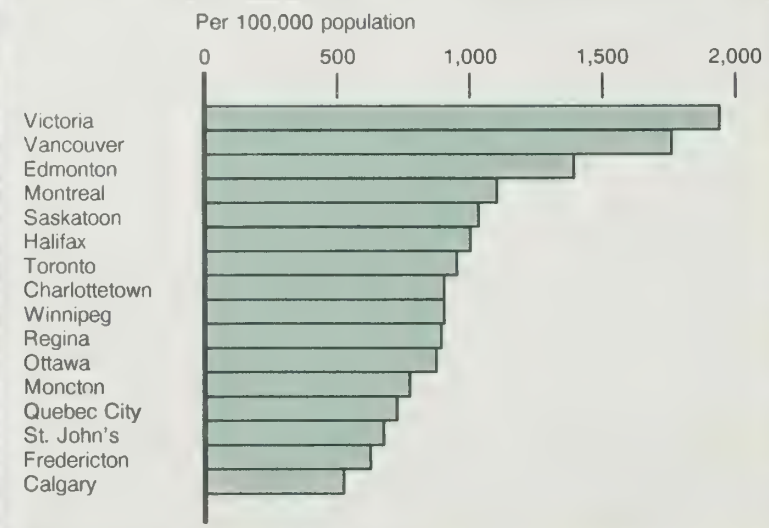
The generally higher incidence of violent crime in the west also appears when major metropolitan areas are compared, although there are some exceptions. While Victoria, Vancouver, and Edmonton reported the highest violent crime rates in 1986, Calgary had the lowest rate of any major Canadian city. On the other hand, Montreal had the

Violent crime rate, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205.

Violent crime rate, selected cities, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205

fourth highest urban violent crime rate, and Halifax, Toronto and Charlottetown all had higher rates than Winnipeg and Regina.

Violent crime rates are generally higher in large urban areas than in small cities or towns, although the incidence of violent crime generally increased more rapidly in smaller centres in the last decade.

In 1986, cities with a population of 250,000 or more had an average of 933 violent crimes per 100,000 population. This compared with rates of 822 in cities with a population between 50,000 and 250,000, 769 in cities with 10,000 to 50,000 people, and 729 in centres with a population of between 750 and 10,000.

Between 1977 and 1986, the violent crime rate in towns with less than 10,000 population increased 48%, compared with 44% for cities with 10,000 to 50,000 people, 42% in cities with population between 50,000 and 250,000, and 38% in the largest urban areas.

Police solve most violent crimes

The police generally solve, or clear, about three-quarters of reported violent crimes. In 1986, 44% of all violent offences were cleared by charge, while another 29% were cleared otherwise.[2]

There is some variation, though, in the percentage of the different types of violent offences that are cleared by charge. In 1986, 76% of homicides and 77% of attempted murders resulted in charges. At the same time, only about half of assaults (56%) and sexual assaults (47%) were cleared by charge, while the figure was just 29% for robberies.

Most violent offenders are men. In 1986, 76% of those charged with violent crimes were men, while 8% were women and 16% were young offenders.

[2] Offences can be cleared by charge or cleared otherwise. Offences are cleared by charge when an arrest is made, a summons to appear is issued, or a warrant to apprehend is laid against at least one person. An offence is cleared otherwise when the offender has been identified and enough is known to issue a warrant, yet, there is a reason outside of police control that prevents charging. Clearance rates for homicide are from *Homicide in Canada*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-209. Rates for other crimes are from *Canadian Crime Statistics*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205.

Holly Johnson *is a senior analyst with the Law Enforcement Program of the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.*

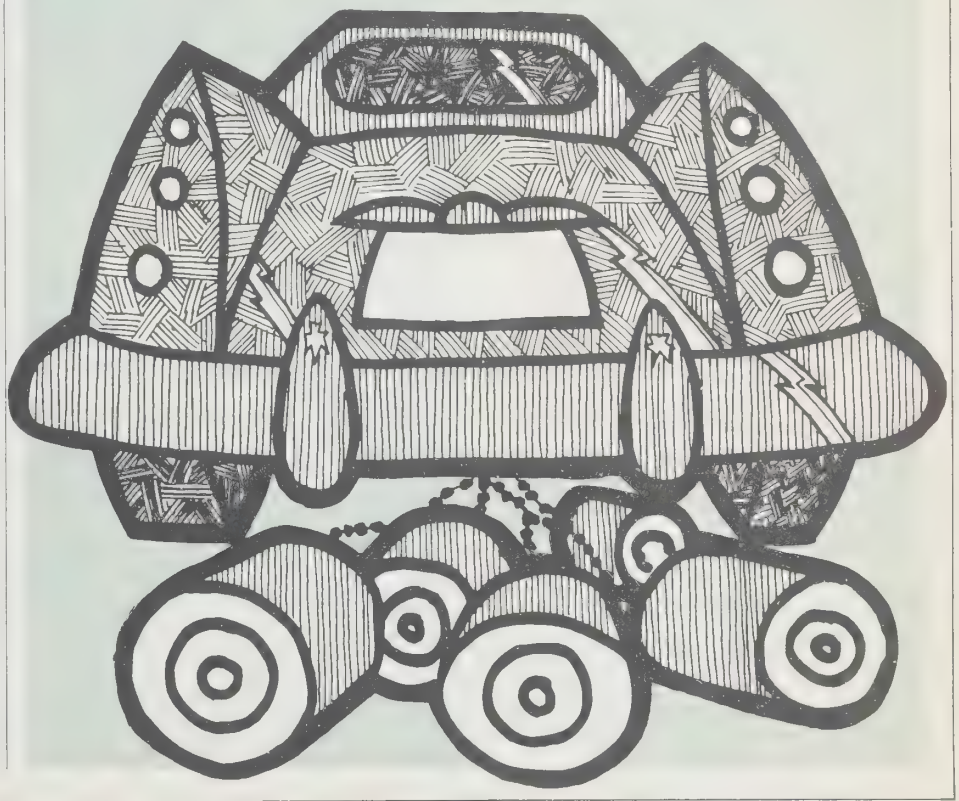
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EMPLOYMENT OF DISABLED CANADIANS

by David Gower

Being disabled remains a substantial impediment to finding and keeping a job in Canada. While a significant proportion of those with disabilities are employed, disabled people are much less likely to be working than their non-disabled peers. As well, gaps between the employment levels of disabled and non-disabled populations exist regardless of sex, age, or educational attainment.



Low level of employment for people with disabilities

In 1984, 42% of disabled Canadians aged 15-64 were employed. In comparison, 67% of the non-disabled population in this age range had jobs. Overall, close to 640,000 disabled people aged 15-64 were working in 1984; they made up about 6% of the total number of Canadians with jobs that year.

Employment levels of those with disabilities declined markedly the more serious the disability.[1] While almost half (48%) of those with a low level of disability were employed in 1984, just 33% of the moderately disabled, and only 17% of those with major disabilities, had jobs.

Of the population with physical and sensory disabilities, those with hearing difficulties were the most likely to be employed, while the sight-impaired had the lowest employment level. People aged 35-64 with mobility and agility difficulties also had relatively low employment rates.

Disabled less often employed at all ages

Excluding full-time students, 59% of disabled men and 47% of disabled women

[1] The degree of disability was rated as low, moderate, or major. Those with a low level of disability had some difficulty performing at least one activity; those regarded as moderately disabled were completely unable to perform one or two activities; those with major disabilities were completely unable to perform three or more activities.

The disabled population in Canada

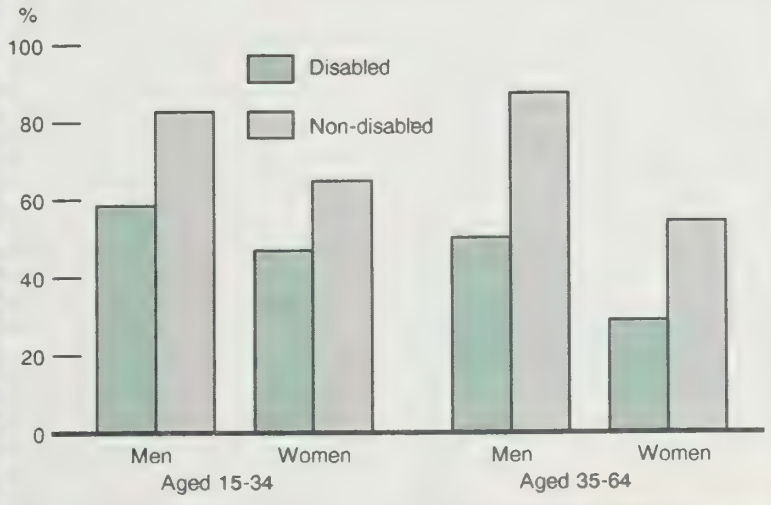
The Canadian Health and Disability Survey defined the disabled as those who had trouble performing one or more of 17 daily living activities, such as walking upstairs, lifting packages, reading ordinary newsprint (with glasses, if usually worn), or hearing what is said in a normal conversation between two people. The disabled also included people with mental handicaps and those limited in the kind or amount of activity they can do because of a long-term physical condition or health problem. People who experienced activity limitation solely due to mental illness, as well as those in institutions, were not included in the disabled population.

Disabled people identified in this study ranged from those who had occasional difficulty performing one activity to those who were completely unable to perform a number of functions.

According to the Canadian Health and Disability Survey, an estimated 2.4 million adult Canadians, 13% of the non-institutionalized population aged 15 and over, had some form of disability in 1983-84. Almost one million of these people were aged 65 and over. The remaining 1.5 million disabled Canadians were aged 15-64; they made up 9% of this population.

The prevalence of disabilities within the population aged 15-64 increased significantly with age. Less than 5% of those aged 15-34, and 10% of those aged 35-54 were disabled in 1984. In comparison, 25% of those aged 55-64 were classified as disabled.

Percentage of disabled and non-disabled populations employed, by age, 1984



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division.

Percentage of disabled and non-disabled populations employed, by educational attainment, 1984

		Disabled		Non-disabled	
		Elementary or no education	Postsecondary education	Elementary or no education	Postsecondary education
		%			
Aged 15-34	Men	33	78	71	88
	Women	28	69	38	77
Aged 35-64	Men	42	70	82	93
	Women	18	52	39	68

Source: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division.

aged 15-34 were employed in 1984. In comparison, 83% of men and 65% of women in this age range without disabilities had jobs.

Differences between employment levels of disabled and non-disabled people were even greater among those aged 35-64. Just 51% of men and 29% of women in this age range with disabilities were working in 1984, compared with 88% of men and 55% of women without disabilities.

Some of the variation between the employment levels of disabled and non-disabled people aged 35-64, however, are the result of differences in the age distribution and family circumstances of these populations. For example, a much higher proportion of disabled people in this age range, compared with the overall population, are aged 55-64, an age group generally characterized by low levels of employment.

When the survey results were standardized (i.e., the employment figures for the disabled population aged 35-64 were recalculated to show what they would have been if the age distribution and family circumstances of this group were the same as that for the non-disabled population) 62% of disabled men and 36% of disabled women were estimated to have been employed. While these figures were closer to those for the non-disabled population than the non-standardized results, most of the gap between the employment levels of disabled and non-disabled people in this age range remained.

Education enhances employment chances

Employment levels for both disabled and non-disabled people increase with rising education; however, the impact of education on employment is greater for those with disabilities. This was especially the case for men.

In 1984, the employment rate (33%) for disabled men aged 15-34 with elementary or no education was less than half that for comparable non-disabled men (71%). In comparison, the employment rate of disabled men in this age range with postsecondary training was only 10 percentage points below that of non-disabled men: 78% compared to 88%.

The pattern was similar for men aged 35-64. There was a difference of 40 percentage points between the employment levels of those with little or no education — for those with postsecondary training the gap was 23 percentage points.

Increased education also had a major impact on the employment of disabled women in that a much higher percentage of those with postsecondary education than those with little or no education were employed. Increased education, however,

had less effect in reducing employment disparities between disabled and non-disabled women than it did for men, because employment levels of non-disabled women also increased substantially with higher education.

A possible explanation for the particularly large differences between the employment rates of disabled and non-disabled men with low levels of education is that those with little education may be more inclined to seek or hold jobs requiring manual labour. A disability could therefore represent a serious obstacle to the employment of these men.

The actual relationship between education, disability and employment can be complicated. In some cases, the disability will have occurred after the completion of education, and the level of education already attained may affect the ability of a person to adjust to the new situation. In other instances, the type and degree of disability may affect the level of education an individual can attain. This is especially true in the case of the mentally handicapped.

Higher unemployment rates for disabled Canadians

Disabled people have higher unemployment rates than the non-disabled. In 1984, 22% of disabled men aged 15-34 in the labour force and 10% of those aged 35-64 were unemployed. These rates compared with 13% and 6% for men who were not disabled. Among women aged 35-64, 13% of those with disabilities were unemployed



compared with 7% of those without disabilities.

The unemployment rate for women aged 15-34 with a disability (14%) was almost the same as that for the non-disabled (13%).

Many disabled people not in the labour force

Even more significant than differences in unemployment rates is the fact that a far higher proportion of disabled than non-disabled people are not in the labour force at all; that is, they are neither employed nor looking for work.

In 1984, 24% of disabled men aged 15-34 and 44% of those aged 35-64 were not in the labour force. The comparable figures for non-disabled men were about 5% for both groups.

Among disabled women, 45% of those aged 15-34 and 67% of those aged 35-64 were not in the labour force. These figures compare with 26% for non-disabled women in the younger age range and 40% in the older group.

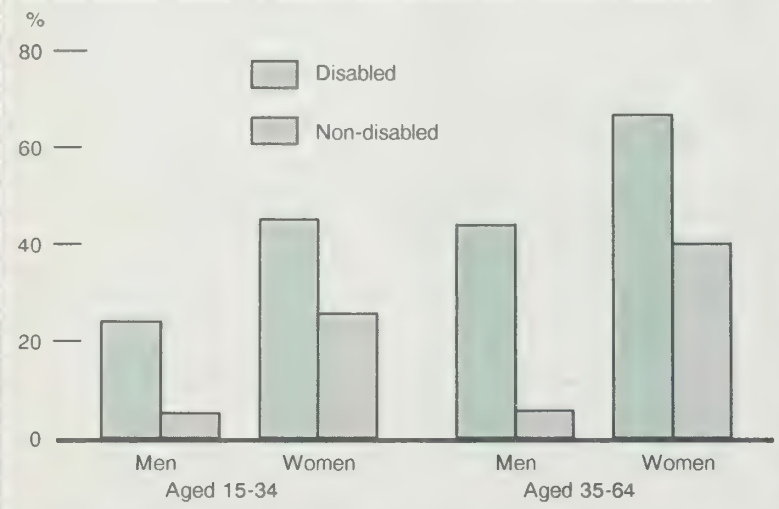
Questions for the future

Disabled people in Canada are less likely to be employed than non-disabled people regardless of age, sex, or education, although education seems to have some effect in reducing differences in employment levels. Many issues related to the employment of disabled people, however, still must be examined.

- What kinds of jobs do disabled workers have? How many work in jobs specifically designed for those with disabilities?
- Does the low employment rate of disabled people stem from a lack of demand for their services or from factors such as poor transportation or inaccessible buildings and facilities?
- What effects do local labour market conditions have on the employment of disabled people? Are disabled people who live in rural regions at an even greater disadvantage than their urban counterparts?
- How do disabled people fare in terms of income, benefits, and opportunities for career advancement?
- If more disabled people received a higher education, would they achieve the same degree of labour market integration as those who are currently well-educated? Does the type of education make a difference?

David Gower *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Survey Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

Percentage of disabled and non-disabled populations not in the labour force, by age, 1984



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division

▪ More detail on the labour market activity of the physically disabled is available from two sources. The first is the report by the same author, *Labour Market Activity of Disabled Persons in Canada: Results from the Canadian Health and Disability Survey, 1983-1984*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-535 (No. 1).

The second source is the Health and Activity Limitation Survey conducted in 1986. Results from this survey were not available at the time this article was written; however, preliminary results are available through Statistics Canada Regional Offices or the Disability Data Base Program, Statistics Canada.

LOSS OF PRIME AGRICULTURAL LAND

THE EXAMPLE OF SOUTHERN ONTARIO

by Mary Anne Burke

The last 60 years have seen sweeping changes in Canadian agriculture. Both the rural population and total employment in agriculture have fallen sharply. Many smaller farms have been consolidated into larger ones. As well, agriculture's share of the Gross Domestic Product has dropped considerably, although the value of agricultural output has increased in absolute terms. At the same time, food imports have climbed.

In addition, the amount of land available for farming has declined. In 1986, farmland in Canada totalled 167.6 million acres, 6.5 million less than in 1951.

The loss of agricultural land is significant because, despite Canada's size, very little land — just 11% — is suitable for farming. Moreover, less than half of one percent of the total land base, an area slightly smaller than Nova Scotia, is prime agricultural land. Increasingly, conflicting demands are being placed on Canada's farmland, particularly the prime areas.

Prime agricultural land has been lost, partly as a result of the urbanization process. Early settlements were on prime farmland, and these communities set the pattern for later development. For example, as cities such as Toronto, Montreal and Vancouver have grown, the prime agricultural land base has been eroded in response to housing, transportation, and recreation pressures.

The net loss of farmland in Canada between 1951 and 1986 was a product of gains and losses in different regions. For example, some marginal land was gained on the northern edge of the Prairies; on the other hand, large amounts of prime land in Ontario were lost to agriculture.

Changes in Canadian agriculture

The shift from traditional labour-intensive farming to highly technical, mechanized methods resulted in fewer people farming larger areas. The percentage of the population living in rural areas has dropped, as has the proportion of the labour force employed in agriculture. In 1986, about a quarter (24%) of Canada's population was rural; this was down from more than half (53%) in 1921. During the same period, the proportion of the work force employed in agriculture fell from 33% to 4%. Meanwhile, average farm size rose from 198 acres in 1921 to 572 acres in 1986.

Agricultural output, as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product, fell from a high of 18% in 1926 to just 2% in 1986. This decrease, however, was uneven with major declines occurring in the late 1920s and again in the mid-1950s.

The dollar amount of imported foodstuffs has risen substantially. In 1986, Canada imported $6.7 billion worth of foodstuffs; allowing for inflation, this was a 264% increase from the 1946 total.

Agriculture as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product, 1926-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 11-516 and 13-201.



PRIME FARMLAND IN ONTARIO

Niagara zone

Niagara — $1,085 sales per acre*

Intensive zone

Waterloo — $941 sales per acre
Oxford — $796 sales per acre
Hamilton-Wentworth — $758 sales per acre
Halton — $724 sales per acre

Very high productivity zone

York — $642 sales per acre
Perth — $632 sales per acre
Essex — $630 sales per acre

* Based on 1986 per acre value of sales of agricultural products.

Loss of farmland in Ontario

The amount of agricultural land in Ontario has been falling since 1931. Between 1931 and 1986, the province experienced a net loss of 8.9 million acres of farmland, as total farm acreage dropped from 22.8 to 13.9 million acres. Of this decline, 5.7 million acres (64%) were unimproved land,[1] while the remaining 3.2 million acres (36%) were improved land.[2]

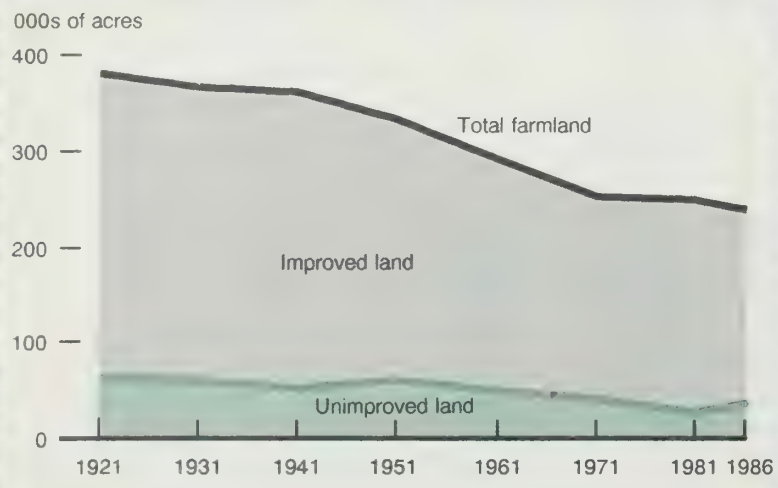
Of prime importance is the loss of agricultural land in southern Ontario. This region contains some of Canada's most productive farmland including the Niagara Peninsula, a unique tender fruit- and grape-growing area, and the Holland Marsh, north of Toronto. A high proportion of the land lost to farming in these areas was improved.

The number of farm acres in the prime agricultural zones of southern Ontario fell 26%, from 3.0 million to 2.2 million between 1931 and 1986. Of this decline, almost half a million acres, or 63% of the total, were improved land.

The greatest proportional loss of prime agricultural land in southern Ontario occurred in the Niagara zone, which had the highest per-acre dollar yield. In this zone, the amount of farmland fell by over a third (35%) from 366,000 to 237,000 acres. More than three-quarters (77%) of this loss was improved land.

During the same period, the other prime agricultural zones lost about a quarter of their farmland, again with improved land accounting for the largest proportion of the loss.

Farmland in the Niagara zone, 1921-1986



Sources Statistics Canada, Census of Agriculture.

[1] Unimproved land includes areas such as woodland, wood lots, Christmas tree lots, grazing or hay lands, bogs and marshes; it excludes large tracts of timber.

[2] Improved land includes all land under crops, as well as land such as summer fallow land and improved pasture land.

Mary Anne Burke *is an Associate Editor of* Canadian Social Trends.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,625.1[p]
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.1[p]
Immigration[1]	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	123,076[p]
Emigration[1]	51,060	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	41,090[p]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918	870
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311	11,634	11,955
- goods sector (000s)	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348	3,417	3,489
- services sector (000s)	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963	8,217	8,465
Total unemployment (000s)	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328	1,236	1,167
Unemployment rate	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.6	8.9
Part-time employment %	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.6	15.2
Women's participation rate	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3	55.1	56.2
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1986 $	37,855	36,923	35,420	34,862	34,828	35,455	36,042	*
% of families with low income	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	13.3	12.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	-	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	64.9	66.0	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,106.3	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	643.4	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	804.2[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	*
Government expenditure on education (1987 $000,000)	28,095.8	28,790.5	28,929.6	29,475.2	28,642.5	31,381.7	30,013.5	30,232.6[p]
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	*
- women	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	-	36.7	-	34.0	-	33.1	30.8	*
- women	-	28.9	-	28.3	-	27.8	25.8	*
Government expenditure on health (1987 $000,000)	24,416.9	25,982.5	27,046.9	28,501.8	29,552.9	30,267.1	31,271.0	32,149.8[p]
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	648	666	685	692	714	749	808	853[p]
- property	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,700[p]
- homicide	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1987 $000,000)	118,984.6	121,610.7	130,153.6	136,395.7	139,371.6	144,606.4	146,052.0	147,464.2[p]
- as a % of total expenditures	57.8	57.3	58.1	59.5	58.2	59.2	59.8	60.4[p]
- as a % of GDP	24.7	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.7	27.7	27.4	26.6[p]
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,902.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	+1.5	+3.7	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.3	+3.3	+4.0[p]
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4
Urban housing starts	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340

- Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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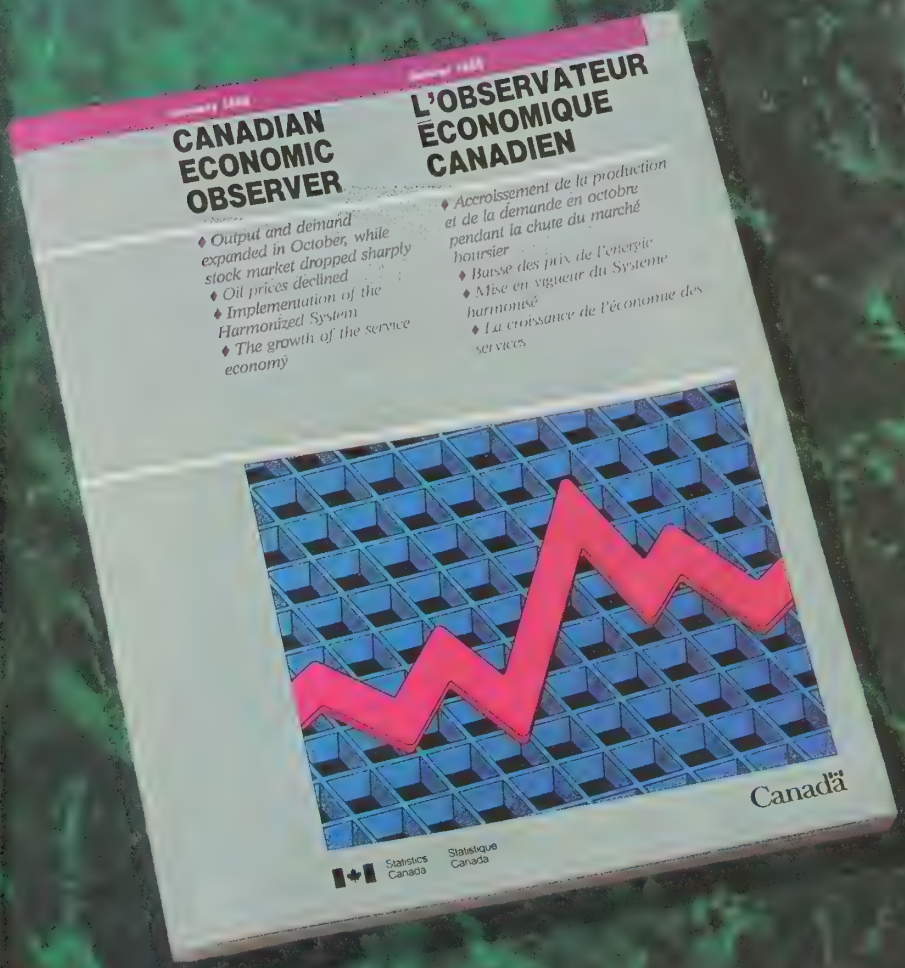
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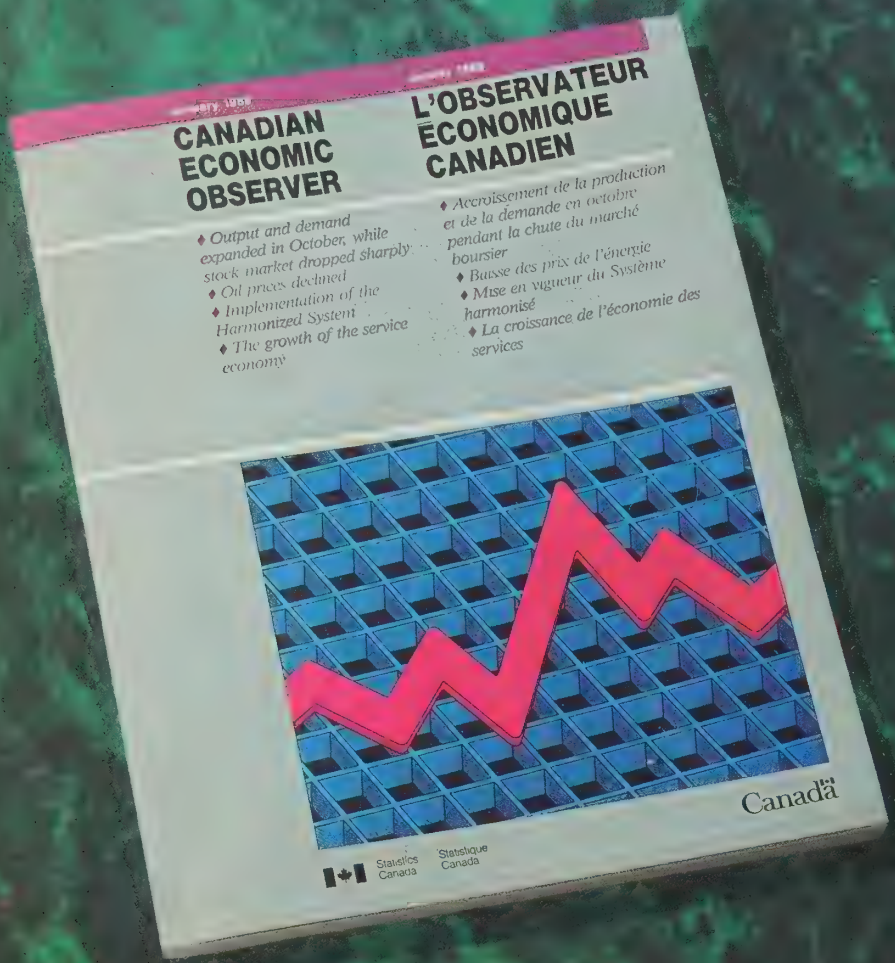
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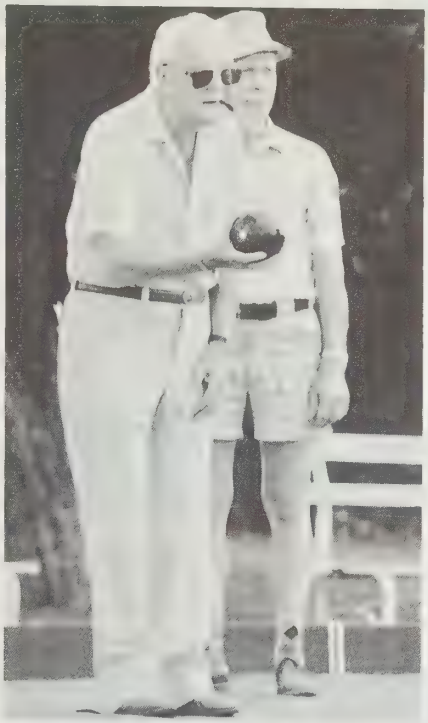
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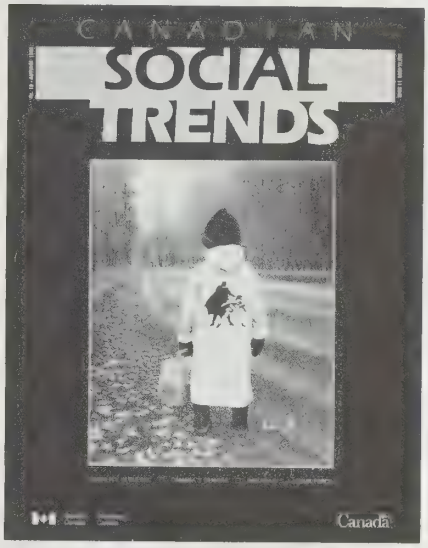
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Cover: ***Christopher*** is dreamily awaiting the schoolbus — coming around the corner any second now — which will no doubt interrupt his world of fantasy. Painted by Horst Guilhauman, 1984, oil on canvas. © Horst Guilhauman.

About the artist:

Born in West Germany (1936), Horst Guilhauman received his initial education in graphic arts in Germany. Later while studying with European artists, he pursued a career in the field of fine arts. Mr. Guilhauman immigrated to Canada in 1967 and has established himself as a leading exponent of realistic painting in Canada. His work is story-telling at its best, as he captures his subjects in their own intimate environment. He currently resides in Eganville, Ontario.

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ISSN 0831-5698

CHANGES IN FERTILITY AMONG CANADA'S LINGUISTIC GROUPS

by Réjean Lachapelle

Fertility depends on biological, cultural, economic and social factors. While it is difficult to determine the effect of any one of these factors, it is relatively easy to assess the consequences of differences in fertility, especially on the size and proportion of linguistic groups.

Despite heavy immigration and the linguistic assimilation of most of these immigrants into the group for which English is the mother tongue, the proportion of Francophones in the Canadian population held at 30% between 1850 and 1950, owing to a high fertility rate among French Canadian women. The fertility of Francophones then decreased, dropping below the Canadian average toward the mid-1960s. This change has contributed to a decrease in the proportion of the total Canadian population speaking French as a mother tongue — from 29% in 1951 to 25% in 1986.



Differences between Quebec and the rest of the country[1]

Vital statistics show that the fertility of Quebec women was approximately 40% greater than that of other Canadian women in the late 1920s. This gap narrowed, then disappeared around 1960. Over the past 25 years, the fertility of Quebec women has always been lower than that of women in the other provinces.

When Quebec joined the national vital statistics collection system in 1926, the

[1] This section uses vital statistics to compare fertility rates of women in Quebec with women in the other provinces, **regardless of their mother tongue**.

province's total fertility rate[2] — that is, the average number of children per woman — was 4.3. It was 45% higher than that of other Canadian women, who had an average of 3.0 children. After 1926, the fertility of Quebec women decreased, bottoming out during the depression of the 1930s. The total rate dropped to 3.2 in Quebec (in 1939) and as low as 2.4 elsewhere in the country (in 1937), a level slightly higher than the national average of 2.3 children per woman needed at that time (due to a higher mortality rate than today) to replace the population. During World War II, the fertility of Quebec women posted regular growth, and by 1947, it had risen to 3.9. It then varied between 3.8 and 4.1 until 1960. The war had more of an effect on fertility in the rest of the country. A pause from 1942 to 1945 (2.7 to 2.8 children per woman) was followed by recovery in 1946 and 1947 (3.5). Then, except during a short interruption between 1948 and 1950 (3.3), the fertility rate rose until 1960 (4.0).

During the 1950s, the fertility of Quebec women went back up to the level seen in the years preceding the Great Depression. In the rest of Canada, the fertility rate in the 1950s and early 1960s was approximately one third higher than the rate observed in the late 1920s. It was this remarkable increase that made the baby boom so big. The baby boom had less of an effect in Quebec.

Between 1926 and 1960, the fertility rate of women in Quebec moved gradually closer to that of other Canadian women. In effect, the ratio of the fertility rate of Quebec women to other Canadian women dropped from 1.45 in 1926 to 1.30 around 1940 and 1.15 around 1950. By the beginning of the Quiet Revolution in 1960, the level of fertility in Quebec was nearly equal to that in the other provinces.

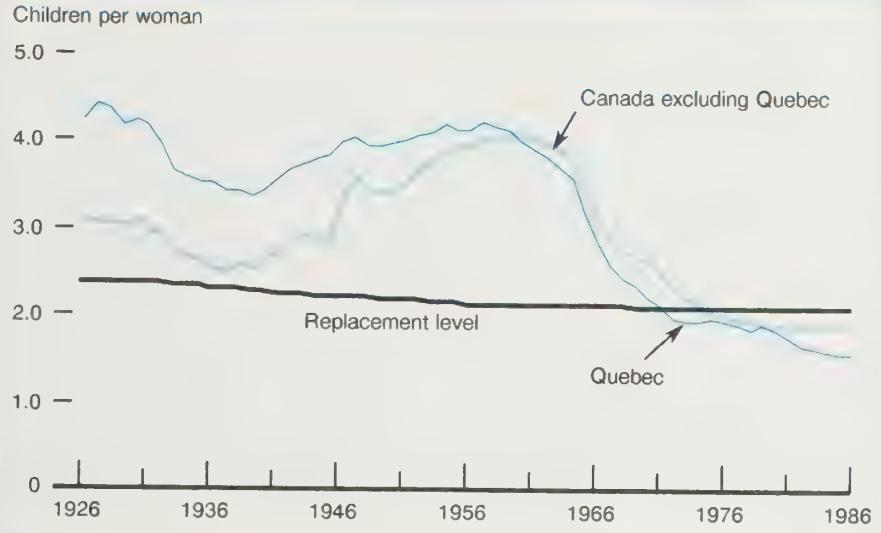
Between 1960 and 1970, fertility declined very rapidly. The total fertility rate of women in Quebec dropped from 3.9 to 2.1, a decrease of nearly 50% in 10 years, while the fertility of other Canadian women fell but not so dramatically, from 4.0 to 2.5. Consequently, in 1970, the fertility of women in Quebec was 15% lower than that of women in the rest of the country.

By 1974, fertility in Quebec had dropped to 1.8 children per woman. Then, until 1979, it varied between 1.7 and 1.8, levels much lower than those needed to replace the population at the time (2.1). The decrease was more regular in the other provinces between 1970 (2.5) and 1980 (1.8). The differences were therefore less pronounced.

By 1986, the fertility rate of Quebec women had fallen still further to 1.4; that of other Canadian women held at between 1.7 and 1.8. The result was a new widening of the gap. In 1986, the fertility rate was 20% lower in Quebec than in the other provinces. Put another way, fertility in the rest of Canada was 25% higher than in Quebec.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

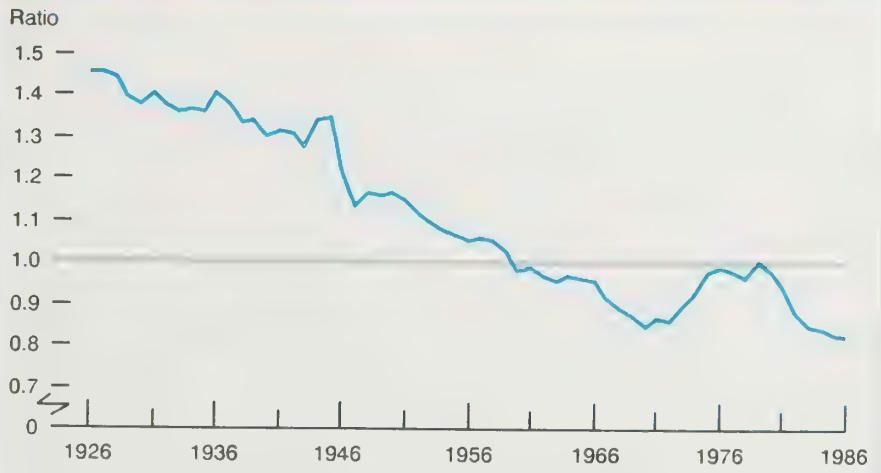
Total fertility rate, Quebec and rest of Canada, 1926-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada and Bureau de la statistique du Québec, annual vital statistics; author's estimates.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Ratio[1] of total fertility rate in Quebec to that in rest of Canada, 1926-1986



[1] A ratio of 1.2 means that fertility in Quebec is 20% higher than that in the rest of the country. A ratio of 0.85 indicates that fertility in Quebec is 15% lower than that in the other provinces.
Sources: Statistics Canada, and Bureau de la statistique du Québec, annual vital statistics; author's estimates

[2] **Total fertility rate** is the average number of children that a group of women would have in their lifetimes if the age-specific rates observed for them in a given year continued until they had had all their children.

These differences in fertility between Quebec and the other provinces have significantly affected the demographic situation. For example, 85,000 births were recorded in Quebec in 1986. If the fertility rate for women in Quebec had been equal to that of other Canadian women (1.75 children per woman), there would have been 106,000 births, or 25% more. Note that births recorded in Quebec in 1986 accounted for 23% of the births recorded in the country (Newfoundland not included), and that Quebec women accounted for 27% of Canadian women of childbearing age. The reduction in Quebec's demographic weight with respect to births is a result of the low fertility observed in that province.

Since Francophones make up 80% of the Quebec population, and Anglophones make up at least 75% of the population in the rest of Canada, the changes in fertility between Quebec women and other Canadian women allow us to conclude that, in the country as a whole, the fertility rate of Francophones was higher than Anglophones until about 1955. However, between 1966 and 1974 and again after 1980, Anglophones registered the higher rate. For the other years, without additional information on fertility by mother tongue, it is difficult to know which group had the highest fertility, since the differences between Quebec and the other provinces were too small.

Completed fertility of cohorts, 1896-1951[3]

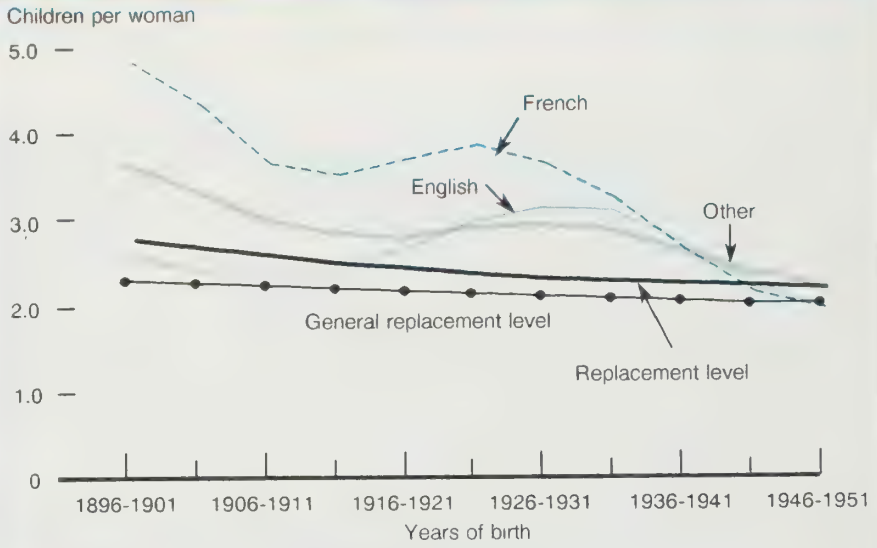
Census data have shown that the completed fertility[4] of Francophones was 80% higher than that of Anglophones for women born at the turn of the century.

This gap narrowed rapidly over the years and disappeared for women born between 1931 and 1936. For more recent cohorts, the completed fertility of Francophones has been lower than that of Anglophones.

Women born between 1901 and 1916 were between 15 and 30 years old in 1931. The Depression hit when they were at those ages when they would normally have had the highest marriage and fertility rates. In these cohorts, and even in cohorts back to 1896, the completed fertility of Anglophones (2.3 to 2.6 children per woman) was below the level needed to replace the population. This narrowly defined "replacement level" depends on the mortality of women (estimated here for Canadian women as a whole) between birth and the average age at childbirth. But, if one estimates instead a general replacement level that takes into account the improvements in mortality between the mothers' generation and the daughters' generation, it does seem that, despite their lower fertility, Anglophone women born between 1896 and 1916 were able to "replace" themselves.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

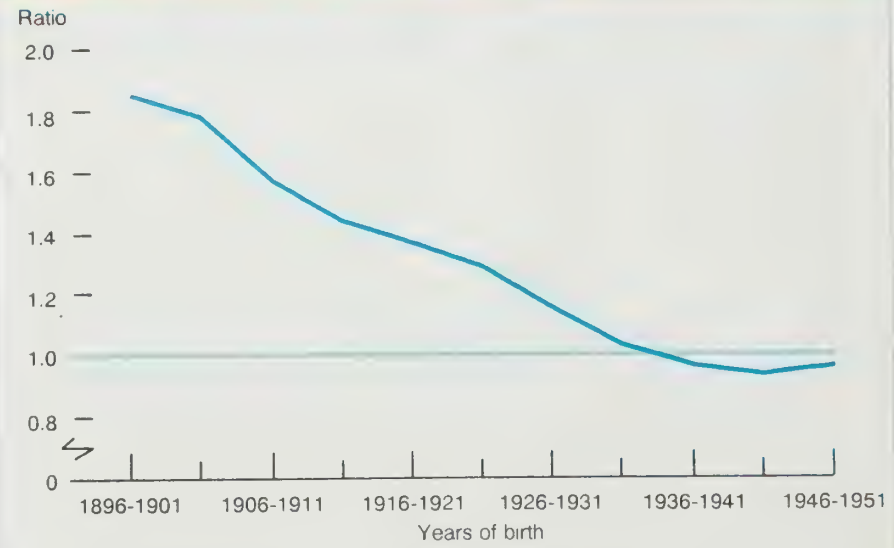
Completed fertility of women born between 1896 and 1951, by mother tongue, Canada



Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, author's estimates.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Ratio of completed fertility of Francophones to that of Anglophones, for women born between 1896 and 1951, Canada



Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, author's estimates.

[3] The sections that follow use census data to compare directly the fertility of Francophones with Anglophones.

[4] **Completed fertility** is the average number of children that the women born in a given year (**cohort**) had in their childbearing years.

For the Anglophone population, the high fertility rates that characterized the period following the depression of the 1930s and World War II resulted in an increase in the completed fertility of cohorts born after 1910. In effect, the average number of children rose from 2.3 for women born between 1906 and 1911 to 3.1 for women born between 1926 and 1936, a rise of one third. This increase was attributable to the rise in the proportion of women who married, the drop in the proportion of married women who remained childless and the increased average family size. This recovery in fertility resulted not only in an increase in the proportion of three-, four- and five-children families, but also in a not inconsiderable rise in the proportion of women having six or more children (12% in cohorts born between 1926 and 1931, compared to 9% in cohorts born between 1906 and 1911). However, the downward trend in the proportion of families having 10 children or more continued.

Completed fertility by mother tongue, for women born between 1896 and 1951 (all marital statuses), Canada, Quebec and rest of country

Years of birth	Children per woman			
	All languages	English	French	Other
	Canada			
1896-1901	3.30	2.60	4.76	3.68
1901-1906	3.06	2.41	4.25	3.35
1906-1911	2.75	2.31	3.57	3.01
1911-1916	2.77	2.44	3.46	2.86
1916-1921	2.94	2.68	3.63	2.79
1921-1926	3.17	2.98	3.78	2.93
1926-1931	3.21	3.13	3.56	2.96
1931-1936	3.08	3.10	3.17	2.89
1936-1941	2.68	2.74	2.59	2.64
1941-1946	2.23	2.26	2.07	2.40
1946-1951	1.97	1.97	1.88	2.23
	Quebec			
1896-1901	4.14	2.22	4.73	2.66
1901-1906	3.78	2.04	4.24	2.39
1906-1911	3.16	1.94	3.48	2.48
1911-1916	3.12	2.03	3.38	2.43
1916-1921	3.28	2.29	3.55	2.28
1921-1926	3.46	2.67	3.69	2.52
1926-1931	3.30	2.71	3.45	2.57
1931-1936	2.98	2.68	3.07	2.52
1936-1941	2.49	2.36	2.50	2.45
1941-1946	2.03	1.95	2.01	2.27
1946-1951	1.79	1.73	1.77	2.19
	Rest of country			
1896-1901	3.00	2.63	4.94	3.81
1901-1906	2.79	2.44	4.42	3.46
1906-1911	2.59	2.34	4.00	3.08
1911-1916	2.64	2.47	3.82	2.91
1916-1921	2.82	2.71	4.03	2.86
1921-1926	3.07	3.00	4.26	2.98
1926-1931	3.17	3.15	4.12	3.01
1931-1936	3.12	3.12	3.72	2.94
1936-1941	2.76	2.76	3.03	2.67
1941-1946	2.30	2.28	2.36	2.41
1946-1951	2.01	1.99	2.04	2.24

Note: To calculate completed fertility for the three most recent groups of cohorts, the figure was increased for the number of children per woman estimated using the 1981 Census on the basis of observed fertility between 1981 and 1986.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada; and author's estimates.

Among Francophones, no doubt because of their already high level of fertility, the increase in completed fertility was less pronounced and involved fewer cohorts. From a low of 3.5 children per woman in cohorts born between 1911 and 1916, completed fertility rose to 3.8 in cohorts born between 1921 and 1926. Although completed fertility was the same in the cohorts born between 1906 and 1911 and those born between 1926 and 1931 (3.6 children per woman), there were significant differences between the two groups — namely, an increase in the proportion of married women, a decrease in the proportion of married women without children and an increase in the proportion of women with two to five children. These changes were offset by a decrease in the proportion of larger families. The proportion of women with six or more children dropped from 26% in cohorts born between 1906 and 1911 to 21% in those born between 1926 and 1931.

The completed fertility of Anglophones differed little from that of Francophones in the cohorts born between 1931 and 1936. However, the proportion of married Anglophone women was higher than that of married Francophone women; those who were married remained childless or had only one child a little less frequently and a greater proportion of them had two to four children. Francophones still held their traditional advantage in the number of families with five or more children, and this offset their lower proportion of families with two, three or four children.

For women born after 1935, the completed fertility of Anglophones is higher than that of Francophones. The average number of children of Francophone women in the cohorts born between 1946 and 1951 (1.9) is, moreover, below the replacement level, even when one takes into account the probable reductions in mortality that will enable the daughters to live longer than their mothers. In these cohorts, the fertility of Francophones is lower than that of Anglophones except for

the first child, where the difference is negligible. In both groups, except perhaps in the case of first births, fertility has decreased for all birth order — particularly from the third child up — from the cohorts born between 1931 and 1936 to those born between 1946 and 1951. In other words, the recent decrease in completed fertility is affecting not only large families, but also three-children families, and perhaps even two-children families.

At first glance, it is interesting to note that the overall lower completed fertility of Francophones relative to Anglophones is not the case if we look separately at Quebec or at the rest of the country. The lower fertility of Francophones in the country as a whole is the result of the fact that, for cohorts born after 1935, the completed fertility of Francophones in Quebec is lower than that of Anglophones living outside Quebec.

In Quebec, as in the rest of Canada, the higher fertility of Francophones has decreased considerably and, for cohorts born after 1940, the completed fertility of women with neither English nor French as a mother tongue now exceeds that of Francophones. In addition, in the more recent cohorts — that is, those born between 1946 and 1951 — the higher fertility of Francophones relative to Anglophones is very small, even negligible, both in Quebec and in the rest of the country. Finally, for all the cohorts, the fertility of Quebec women is still lower than that of other Canadian women, regardless of mother tongue. This is no doubt a result of the higher proportion of Quebec women in all linguistic groups who live in major urban areas such as Montreal and Quebec City, which have always been associated with lower fertility.

Fertility since 1956

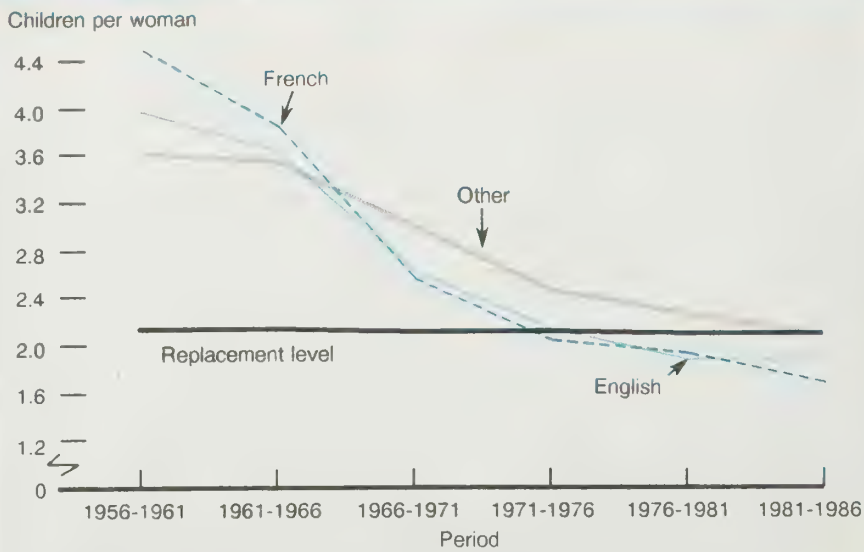
Between 1956 and 1961, the fertility of Francophones was still nearly 15% higher than that of Anglophones. The gap quickly narrowed and disappeared around the mid-1960s. Subsequently, except between 1976 and 1981, Francophone fertility has been lower than Anglophone fertility. From 1981 to 1986, Anglophone fertility exceeded Francophone fertility by more than 10%.

Analysis of the changes in completed fertility for women who were 30 years of age or older in 1981 does not allow us to describe the recent changes in fertility differences. To extend the study, we have to estimate the total fertility rates by



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Total fertility rate, by mother tongue, Canada, 1956-1986



Sources Statistics Canada, Census of Canada; author's estimates.

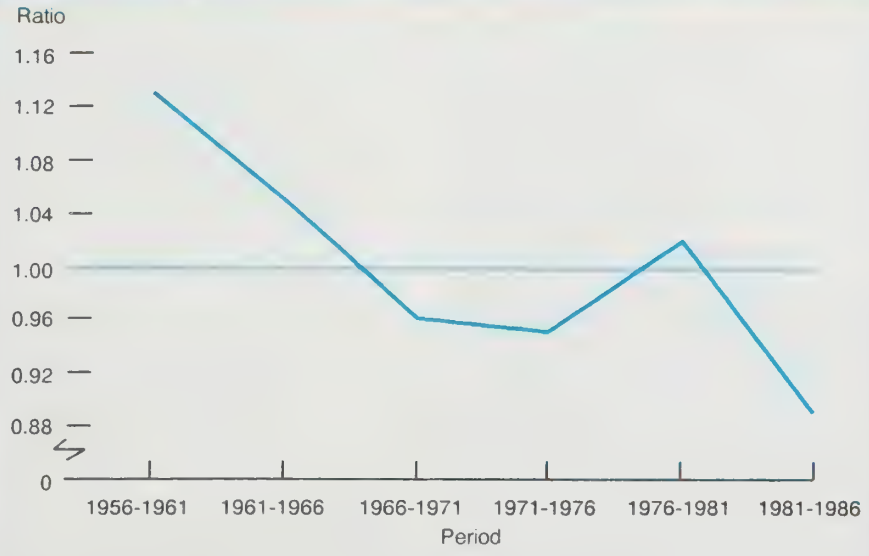
Total fertility rate by mother tongue, Canada, Quebec and rest of country, 1956-1986

Five-year period	Children per woman			
	All languages	English	French	Other
	Canada			
1956-1961	3.88	3.80	4.31	3.48
1961-1966	3.51	3.48	3.66	3.40
1966-1971	2.49	2.46	2.36	2.85
1971-1976	1.98	1.95	1.85	2.32
1976-1981	1.75	1.68	1.72	2.11
1981-1986	1.66	1.67	1.49	1.94
	Quebec			
1956-1961	3.99	3.26	4.22	2.79
1961-1966	3.43	3.04	3.54	2.93
1966-1971	2.26	2.09	2.27	2.58
1971-1976	1.82	1.62	1.81	2.26
1976-1981	1.71	1.46	1.71	2.04
1981-1986	1.49	1.46	1.47	1.79
	Rest of country			
1956-1961	3.84	3.82	4.95	3.57
1961-1966	3.55	3.50	4.34	3.46
1966-1971	2.58	2.48	2.87	2.89
1971-1976	2.04	1.96	2.12	2.33
1976-1981	1.76	1.69	1.76	2.12
1981-1986	1.72	1.68	1.60	1.96

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada; and author's estimates.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Ratio of total fertility rate of Francophones to that of Anglophones, Canada, 1956-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada; author's estimates.

mother tongue for the last few five-year periods. The results confirm the conclusions reached in the preceding analyses and add some useful details.

In Canada as a whole, Francophone fertility exceeded that of Anglophones not only until 1956, but also until 1966. After 1966 and until 1976, the fertility of Francophones was slightly lower than that of Anglophones. Between 1976 and 1981, Francophone fertility was once again higher than that of Anglophones, but only slightly. Finally, between 1981 and 1986, the gap widened as Francophone fertility decreased considerably from the previous five-year period while Anglophone fertility showed little change. The fertility of all the linguistic groups, including the group made up of women with mother tongues other than French or English, is now below the replacement level.

Until 1981, in Quebec as in all the other provinces, Francophone fertility was always higher than that of Anglophones. But a remarkable change took place between 1981 and 1986. In Quebec, Francophone fertility was then as low as that of Anglophones (1.5 children per woman); elsewhere in Canada, Francophone fertility was actually lower (1.6) than that of Anglophones (1.7). This change occurred despite the weaker concentration of Francophones in metropolitan areas, both in Quebec and elsewhere in Canada.

To discover whether Francophone fertility is now lower than Anglophone fertility in the Montreal area, total fertility rates were estimated for the three linguistic groups for the 1981-1986 period.[5] The Francophone rate was 1.33, that of Anglophones was 1.39, and that of the population for which neither official language was the mother tongue was 1.63. For the population as a whole, the total rate was 1.37. Thus, the fertility of all language groups in greater Montreal was very low, well below the replacement level. And as was to be expected, Francophone fertility was lower than that of Anglophones.

The recent lower fertility of Francophones outside Quebec was also

[5] For a description of how the Montreal area was delineated, see: Lachapelle, Réjean. "The Strengthening of Majority Positions: Recent Developments in the Language Situation", in Dumas, Jean. *Report on the Demographic Situation in Canada, 1986*, Ottawa, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-209E, 1987, p. 129.



Estimating fertility

Vital statistics provide an annual estimate of the total fertility rate for each province (except Newfoundland). To measure the approximate total fertility rate for Canada, Quebec excluded, we used these rates for Quebec and Canada and the proportion of Quebec women aged 20 to 34 in the total population of Canadian women belonging to the same age group. The total fertility rate for Quebec between 1951 and 1980 was then corrected to take into account late registration of births. The correction factor is small before 1965 and negligible after 1980.

The completed fertility of the cohorts by mother tongue is estimated using census results, which provide data on the number of live births experienced by non-single women. This approach results in an underestimation of the average number of children per woman, since it is based on the assumption that single women have no children. Of course, this introduces a margin of error, but it is no doubt fairly small since single women who have had a child may marry later on. Also in recent censuses, women living common-law have been included among married women.

The replacement levels were estimated using period life tables[1] and cohort mortality estimates.[2] These estimates were extended for recent cohorts.

Unpublished census data were used to estimate the total fertility rates by mother tongue from 1956 to 1986. The estimation method makes use of the fact that approximately 95% of children under 15 years of age live with their mother or a woman who plays that role. The results obtained for all women differ very little from those provided by vital statistics. Moreover, the slight differences observed for the periods 1966-1971 and 1971-1976 between the estimates presented in a book by Réjean Lachapelle and Jacques Henripin[3] and those which appear in the second table are attributable to the fact that here data were used not only on children living in husband-wife families, but also on those living in lone-parent families in which a woman is head of the household.

[1] Nagnur, Dhruva. *Longevity and Historical Life Tables*, Ottawa, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-506, 1986.

[2] Bourbeau, Robert and Légaré, Jacques. *Évolution de la mortalité au Canada et au Québec, 1831-1931: essai de mesure par génération*, Montréal, Les Presses de l'Université de Montréal, 1982.

[3] *The Demolinguistic Situation in Canada: Past Trends and Future Prospects*, Montréal, Institute for Research on Public Policy, 1980, p. 114.

observed between 1981 and 1986 in the two provinces in which most of them live. In Ontario, the total fertility rate for Francophones was 1.54, compared to 1.61 for Anglophones and 1.75 for the other groups. (The rate for the population as a whole was 1.63.) In New Brunswick, the rate was 1.67 for the overall population: 1.61 for Francophones and 1.68 for Anglophones.

These differences in fertility have had a significant effect on the linguistic composition of the population. Thus, in 1986, women for whom French was the mother tongue made up 26.5% of the Canadian population of childbearing age; however, only 23.8% of the children under five years of age had a mother for whom French was the mother tongue, owing to the lower fertility of this group. Mothers do not always pass their mother tongue on to their children; consequently, 23.1% of young Canadian children speak French as their mother tongue. In the country as a whole, then, the decrease has resulted mainly from differences in fertility, rather than from a change in mother tongue from one generation to the next.

Summary

The high fertility rates of French Canadian women are now a thing of the past. Since 1960, the fertility of all Quebec women has been lower than that of other Canadian women. In the country as a whole, the fertility of Anglophones has exceeded that of Francophones since 1966, except between 1976 and 1981.

Both in Quebec and in the rest of Canada, Francophone fertility had long been at least slightly higher than Anglophone fertility. This ceased to be the case between 1981 and 1986. The lower fertility of Francophones can be seen as much in the Montreal area as in Ontario and New Brunswick. It may be difficult to explain why Francophone fertility is lower in such different environments, but it is easy to estimate the effect this situation is having on changes in the number and proportion of Francophones in Canada.

A prominent French Canadian demographer, **Réjean Lachapelle** *has been Research Director of the Language Studies Program, Social and Economic Studies Division at Statistics Canada since 1984. Among his published works are several papers on the demographic and language situation in Quebec and Canada. He also wrote a book (with Jacques Henripin) entitled* The Demolinguistic Situation in Canada: Past Trends and Future Prospects.

LOTTERIES IN CANADA

by Mary Bir



Playing lotteries has become commonplace in Canada since their legalization in 1969. Surveys indicate that almost every Canadian has bought tickets at least once. And opportunities to make such purchases have multiplied. By 1985, five government-sponsored lottery corporations were offering three nationwide games and a variety of regional lotteries. Thousands of retailers across the country sell tickets in outlets ranging from booths in malls to large chain stores. But while the annual amount spent on government-run lotteries now adds up to billions of dollars, as a proportion of individual family expenditures, lotteries are minimal, representing less than half of one percent.



Ticket sales rise

The chance of winning millions has led to steady increases in sales of lottery tickets. In 1985, Canadians spent $2.7 billion on government lotteries. Adjusting for inflation this was close to a threefold increase from 1976. However, during the 1981-1983 recession, spending on lotteries (in constant 1985 dollars) declined, indicating that, to some extent, ticket purchases are tied to the overall state of the economy.

In 1985, expenditures on lotteries were highest in Ontario, where for the first time, sales topped $1 billion. Quebec ranked next at $883 million, followed by British Columbia ($330 million), the Western region ($318 million), and the Atlantic region ($153 million).

Family spending on lotteries

In 1986, 70% of Canadian households reported buying tickets for government-run lotteries, up from 65% in 1982. The average annual reported expenditure per family in 1986 was $146.[1] This was an increase from 1982, when ticket purchases for government lotteries amounted to $108 (in constant 1986 dollars) per family.

Spending on lotteries accounted for only a very small proportion of total family expenditures. In 1986, tickets for government-run lotteries represented 0.42% of average family expenditures.

[1] Reported expenditures on government lottery tickets may be underestimated. In fact, total personal expenditures on lotteries recorded in the National Accounts are more than double the amount reported by individual families. Some of the discrepancy can be attributed to purchases by non-residents, but separate estimates of such purchases are not available.

Interprovincial Lottery Corporation ticket sales, by lottery corporation, 1976 to 1985

Lottery corporation	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
	current $ 000s									
Atlantic Lottery Corporation	11,579	40,602	43,618	41,096	52,557	66,750	78,635	109,162	134,987	152,734
Loto Québec	183,341	202,897	253,652	347,816	436,466	479,652	541,411	662,177	741,102	883,121
Ontario Lottery Corporation[1]	218,793	240,431	235,105	323,786	490,300	506,900	550,100	661,800	811,974	1,007,830
Western Lottery Corporation	71,273	74,058	129,826	156,305	200,225	210,567	237,425	350,477	483,476	317,858
British Columbia Lottery Corporation	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	330,061
Total	**484,986**	**557,988**	**662,201**	**869,003**	**1,179,548**	**1,263,869**	**1,407,571**	**1,783,616**	**2,171,539**	**2,691,604**

[1] Includes value of free tickets.
not applicable.
Source: Regional Lottery Corporations.

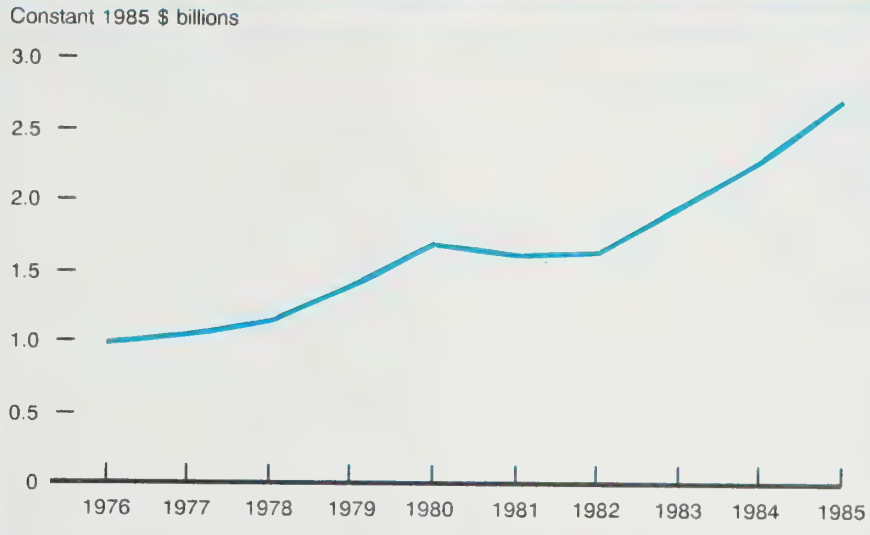
Nonetheless, this was up from 0.33% in 1982.

Quebec residents were the most likely to buy government lottery tickets: almost eight out of 10 (78%) families reported such purchases in 1986. The proportions were close to the national average (70%) in New Brunswick, Ontario, Alberta, and British Columbia. For residents of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Nova Scotia, the percentage ranged from 60% to 65%. On the other hand, fewer than half of families in Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island purchased lottery tickets.

Quebec families also spent the largest amounts of money on government lotteries. In 1986, families in Quebec paid an average of $187 for such lottery tickets. This was well above levels in the next highest provinces: Alberta ($142), Ontario ($139), and British Columbia ($137). Spending on lotteries was lowest in Newfoundland ($58) and Prince Edward Island ($67).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

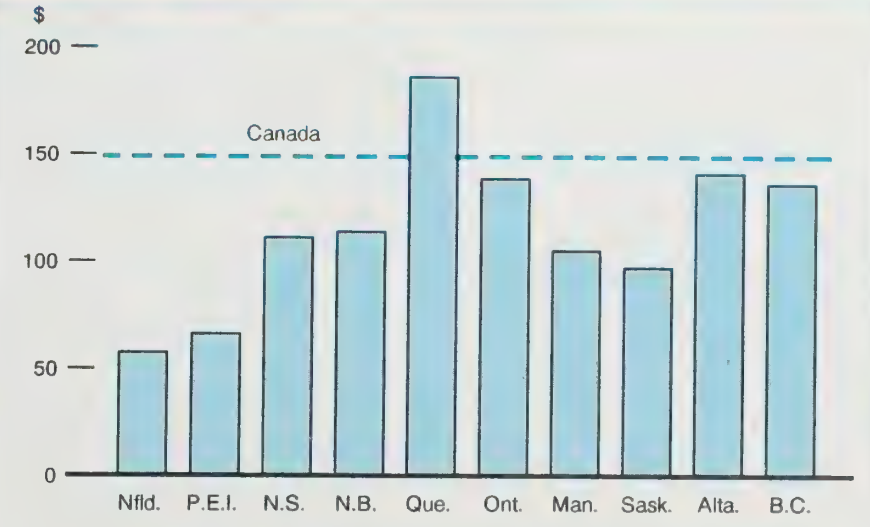
Interprovincial Lottery Corporation ticket sales, 1976-1985



Source: Regional Lottery Corporations.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average family[1] expenditure on government-run lotteries, by province, 1986



[1] Includes all families and unattached individuals.
Source. Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division.

Family income

Both the proportion of families reporting expenditures on government lotteries and the amount they spend tend to rise with family income. In 1986, just under half (49%) of families with incomes below $10,000 bought lottery tickets, and the average expenditure for these families was $49. By contrast, 81% of families with annual incomes between $50,000 and $60,000 bought tickets and spent an average of $238. The likelihood of buying a ticket (76%) and the amount spent ($207) declined somewhat for families with incomes of $60,000 and over.

Low-income families, however, spend a higher percentage of their total income on lotteries than do families at high-income levels. For instance, 1986 lottery spending amounted to 0.65% of the before-tax income of families receiving less than $10,000; the corresponding figure for families at the $60,000 and over income level was just 0.25%.

The players

A survey conducted by the Western Canada Lottery Corporation[2] and a poll undertaken for Loto Québec[3] show that men and women are equally likely to be players, and that lottery players are somewhat younger than the population as a whole.

The Western survey indicated that 25- to 34-year-olds were over-represented among lottery players. This age group made up more than 30% of all lottery players, but just 26% of the population aged 18 and older in that region. People aged 35-54 were also slightly over-represented among ticket buyers. At older ages, lottery playing dropped off. Just 2% of sales were to people aged 75 and older, whereas this group accounted for nearly 6% of the region's population aged 18 and over.

The Quebec survey showed the same pattern among people who played the province's three most popular lotteries. That is, the 25-34 age group was somewhat over-represented among players, while older people were under-represented.

According to the Quebec survey, the majority of lottery players (67%) made both individual and group purchases. Another 30% bought tickets only on an individual basis, and 3% participated only in group purchases.

[2] Western Canada Lottery Corporation, *Annual Report, 1985/86*, p. 9.
[3] Groupe conseil Coopers & Lybrand, *Characteristics of Lottery Players*, Loto Québec, 1986.

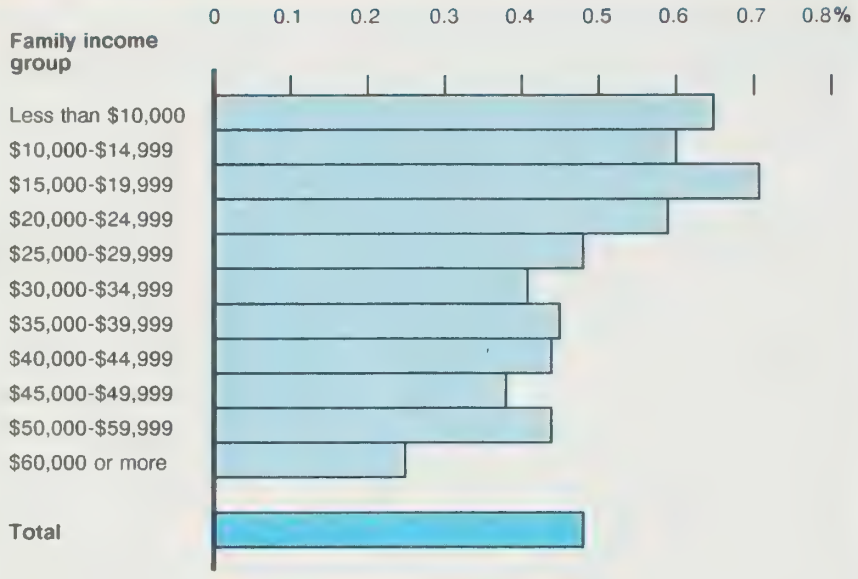
Winning

The cost of lottery tickets ranges from 50 cents to $10. The odds of winning go from about one in three to one in 14 million. Odds, of course, are related to prizes, which include everything from a free ticket to millions of dollars. Chances of winning a major prize ($100,000 or more) in the three national lotteries start at one in 500,000.

During 1985, lottery prizes totalled almost $1.3 billion. Most of these winnings were in the $2, $5, and $10 categories, but many millions of dollars were paid out on prizes of $50, $100, and $1,000. As well, each year a small number

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average expenditure on government-run lotteries as a percentage of before-tax income, by family income group, 1986



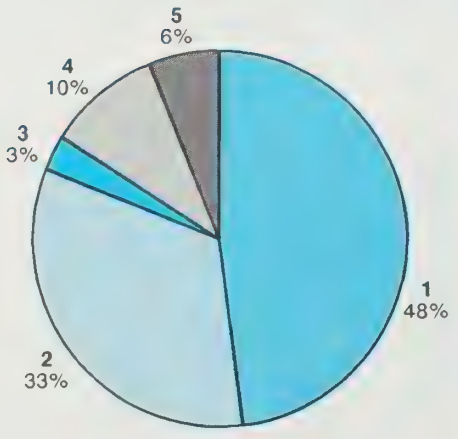
Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Allocation of Interprovincial Lottery Corporation revenue, 1985

Total revenue = $2.7 billion

1 Prizes
2 Returned to provinces
3 Federal government
4 Operating expenses
5 Retailers



Source: Regional Lottery Corporations.

Government involvement in lotteries

Legal from 1820 to the turn of the century, lotteries were then banned in Canada until 1969, when an amendment to the Criminal Code permitted the federal government and the provincial governments or their agents to operate lotteries. Local non-profit groups across the country also are allowed to run fund-raising draws according to government regulations.

In 1970, Quebec became the first province to enter the lottery business — Manitoba followed in 1971. British Columbia, Saskatchewan, and Alberta established lotteries in 1974. That year, the four western provinces united to form the Western Lottery Foundation, which later became the Western Canada Lottery Corporation. Ontario entered the lottery market in 1975. Finally, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward Island, grouped together in the Atlantic Lottery Corporation, introduced lotteries in 1976.

Also in 1976, the four regional corporations created the Interprovincial Lottery Corporation and inaugurated the first Canada-wide lottery — The Provincial. SuperLoto followed in 1980, and in 1982, Lotto 6/49 was launched.

In 1985, British Columbia withdrew from the Western Canada Lottery Corporation to found an independent organization.

The Interprovincial Lottery Corporation now has five Regional Marketing Organizations: the Atlantic Lottery Corporation, Loto Québec, the Ontario Lottery Corporation, the Western Canada Lottery Corporation, and the British Columbia Lottery Corporation. To maintain their exclusive franchise for government lotteries, the provinces pay a combined yearly fee to the federal government.

Today, the five corporations share responsibility for the three nationwide games. In addition, each corporation sells tickets to lotteries exclusive to that region. Together, these regional lotteries numbered 18 in 1985. That year, the three national lotteries accounted for 57% of sales; the remaining 43% came from the regional lotteries.



of players beat the odds and became lottery millionaires. For example, in 1985, around 100 prizes of $1 million or more were awarded.

Surveys of major winners in Ontario[4] and the Western provinces[5] showed that most of them handled their winnings conservatively. Nearly three-quarters (73%) reported banking some of the money; 15% paid off their mortgage; 7% invested in bonds; and 6% invested in real estate.[6] About a quarter (26%) did some travelling, while nearly the same proportion (23%) bought a new vehicle. In addition, four out of 10 winners (44%) shared their prize with family. Only a minority, for example, 3% in Ontario and 11% in the Western provinces, reported problems with solicitations for money.

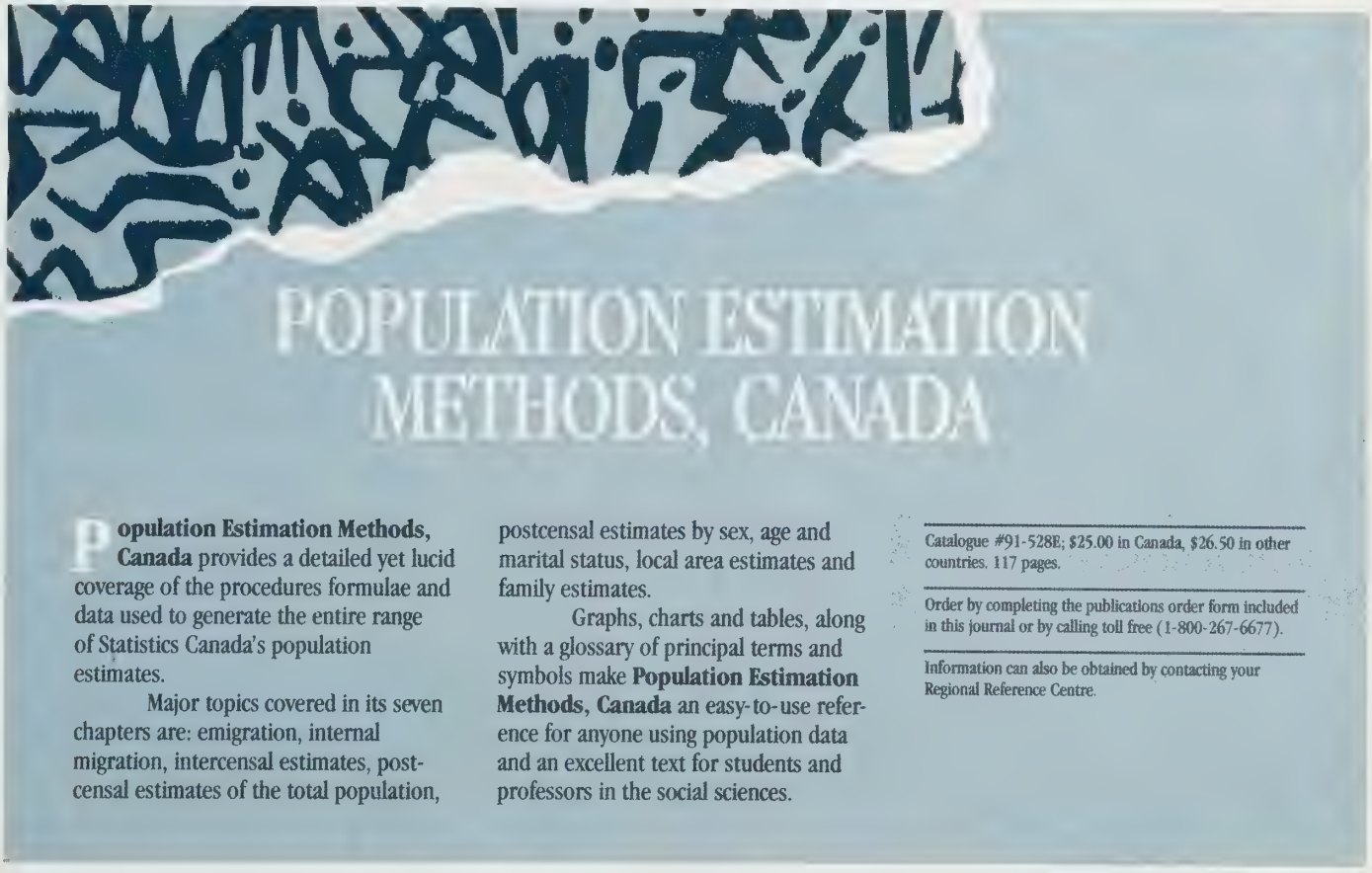
Most major winners continued to buy lottery tickets. In the West, for instance, 78% of major winners bought the same number of tickets, and 20% bought more. Just 1% lost interest in playing lotteries after their win.

Where does the money go?

Almost half (48%) of the total revenue from lottery sales is returned to the players as prize money. Operating expenses account for another 10% of total revenue, while an additional 6% goes to the 32,000 retailers across the country. As well, about 3% of the proceeds are paid to the federal government. The remaining funds, a third of total sales, are returned to the regional corporations. These funds are used to support a variety of activities in the provinces, including sports and recreation, cultural events, heritage and citizenship, health care, medical and scientific research, education, and social and charitable organizations.

[4] Ontario Lottery Corporation, *Annual Report, 1985/86,* p. 4.
[5] Western Canada Lottery Corporation, *Annual Report, 1985/86,* p. 11.
[6] Survey respondents could indicate more than one use for their lottery winnings.

Mary Blickstead *is a special contributor to* Canadian Social Trends.



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LABOUR FORCE TRENDS
CANADA AND THE UNITED STATES

by David Gower

A comparison of labour force trends in Canada and the United States puts developments in Canada during the volatile economic times of the 1980s into a broader perspective. The free trade issue, the huge volume of bilateral trade between Canada and the United States, and the large population flows between the two countries all heighten interest in the labour market conditions faced by Canadian and American workers.

Labour force trends over the course of the 1980s have generally been similar in the two countries, although total employment growth was somewhat greater in the United States, and unemployment rates were higher in Canada. However, since 1984, employment has grown more rapidly and unemployment fallen more sharply in Canada.



Employment growth slower in Canada

Employment grew at a somewhat slower rate in Canada than in the United States in the 1980s.[1] Between 1980 and 1987, total employment rose 11.8% in Canada, compared with 13.2% in the United States.

Much of the difference in employment growth occurred because the 1981-1983 recession had a more severe effect on employment in Canada. Total employment in Canada fell 2.3% between 1981 and 1983, whereas it increased slightly (0.4%) in the United States. As well, the post-recession recovery was initially stronger in the United States. In 1984, the number of Americans with jobs grew 4.1%, well above Canada's 2.5% increase.

In recent years, though, employment growth has been faster in Canada. From 1985 through 1987, total employment in Canada rose an average of 2.8% annually, compared with 2.4% in the United States.

Employment rising most rapidly among Canadian women

In both nations, employment increased more rapidly among women than men. Between 1980 and 1987, the number of Canadian women with jobs rose 21.7%, compared with 19.5% for American women. In the same period, total employment among men increased just 5.3% in Canada and 8.6% in the United States.

A smaller percentage of Canadian than American women, however, have jobs. In 1987, 51.3% of Canadian women, compared with 52.5% of those in the United

[1] Canadian employment data usually include people aged 15 and over, whereas American coverage starts at age 16. For this analysis, Canadian data were retabulated to include only people aged 16 and over.

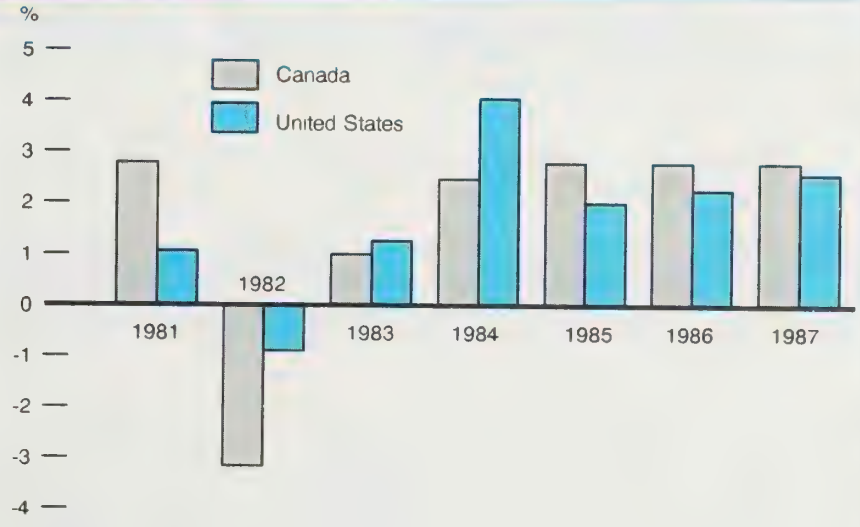
States, were employed. As well, this difference was slightly greater than in 1980 when 46.7% of Canadian women and 47.7% of American women had jobs. Despite greater employment growth among Canadian women, this gap widened because the total number of women aged 16 and over rose at an even faster rate in Canada than in the United States.

In both countries, employment growth was particularly rapid among women aged 25-44. Between 1980 and 1987, the percentage of women in this age range with jobs rose from 57.9% to 67.2% in Canada and from 61.2% to 69.3% in the United States.

Increases in the employment of women aged 16-24 and 45 and over were also similar in Canada and the United States, but these gains — around 3 percentage points for the younger women and one percentage point for the older group — were below those of women aged 25-44. As well, while a greater proportion of Canadian than American women aged 16-24 had jobs in 1987, the reverse was true for women aged 45 and over.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Annual percentage change in employment, Canada and United States, 1981-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division; United States Department of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings*.

Percentage of men and women employed, by age, 1980 and 1987

	Canada		United States	
	1980	1987	1980	1987
	%			
Men				
16-24	66.0	64.3	63.5	63.1
25-44	90.6	87.4	89.9	89.6
45 and over	61.9	55.0	59.5	55.2
Total	**74.3**	**70.9**	**72.0**	**71.5**
Women				
16-24	58.0	60.7	53.9	57.1
25-44	57.9	67.2	61.2	69.3
45 and over	29.2	30.2	33.0	34.3
Total	**46.7**	**51.3**	**47.7**	**52.5**

Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division; United States Department of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings*.

Percentage of men with jobs down

There were particularly sharp declines in the percentage of men with jobs in both Canada and the United States during the early 1980s. Between 1980 and 1983, the percentage of Canadian men with jobs fell from 74.3% to 68.4%; in the United States the decline was from 72.0% to 68.8%. Since 1984, the proportion of employed men has gradually increased in both countries, although the percentage of Canadian men with jobs in 1987 was still 3.4 percentage points lower than in 1980. In comparison, the American figure was down only half a percentage point.

Employment rates fell among men of all ages in both countries, but the declines were steeper in Canada. The proportion of Canadian men aged 25-44 with jobs decreased 3.2 percentage points between 1980 and 1987, compared with less than a half percentage-point drop for comparable American men. Among men aged 45 and over, the proportion with jobs fell 6.9 percentage points in Canada and 4.3 points in the United States. As a result, a smaller percentage of Canadian than American men in both these age ranges were employed in 1987, the reverse of the 1980 situation.

The employment rate among 16-24-year-old men also fell more rapidly in Canada than in the United States. However, in 1987, the percentage of Canadian men in this age range with jobs (64.3%) was still above that in the United States (63.1%).

Service sector share of employment growing

Total service sector[2] employment grew substantially in both nations during the 1980s. Between 1980 and 1987, the number of service workers rose 18.1% in Canada and 20.0% in the United States. Meanwhile, there was almost no growth in goods-producing employment in either country. In fact, the total number of Canadians working in the goods-producing sector fell 0.5%; in the United States, total employment in these industries rose, but only 0.2%.

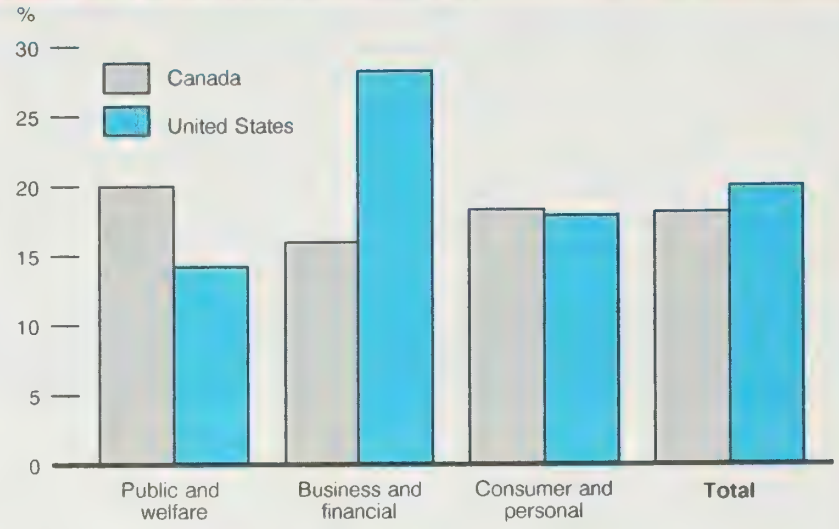
As a result, the proportion of all workers employed in the service sector in both countries rose from just under 66% in 1980 to almost 70% in 1987.

[2] This classification differs from those in regularly published Labour Force Survey series in that "utilities" is included in the goods-producing sector rather than in the service sector. The effect on the data is small, however, since this group represents only about 1% of employment.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

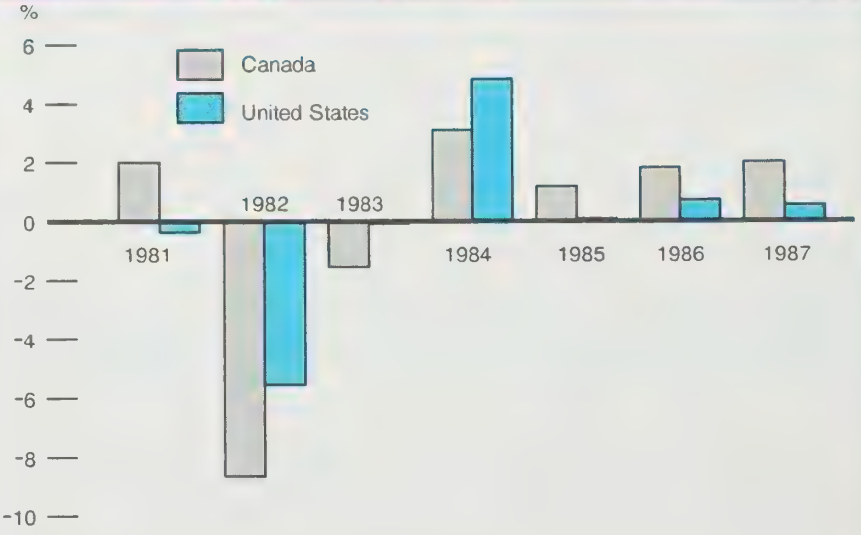
Percentage employment growth, by service sector components, Canada and United States, 1980-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division; United States Department of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings*.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Annual percentage employment changes in goods-producing industries, Canada and United States, 1981-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division; United States Department of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings*.

The lack of overall growth in goods-producing employment in both Canada and the United States is largely a result of the 1981-1983 recession. Between 1981 and 1983, total goods-producing employment fell 10.2% in Canada and 5.7% in the United States. While employment in this sector has risen in both countries since the end of the recession, this growth has been only enough to replace losses that occurred during the recession.

Post-recession growth patterns in goods-producing industries differed in the two countries. Employment in Canada's goods-producing sector has grown steadily since 1984, increasing 1-2% each year. By contrast, most of the recovery in goods-producing employment in the United States occurred in 1984; since then, annual growth has been below 1%. In 1987, for example, goods-producing employment rose just 0.6% in the United States, compared with 2.0% in Canada.

Different service industries growing

Growth rates of the different components of the service sector varied in Canada and the United States. In Canada, public and welfare services was the fastest-growing of the three components of the service sector, while business and financial services was the slowest.[3] The opposite occurred in the United States, where business and financial services had the fastest growth rate, and public and welfare services, the slowest. In fact, the American business and financial sector's growth rate (28.3%) was close to double Canada's (16.0%). Growth rates of consumer and personal services were similar in the two countries.

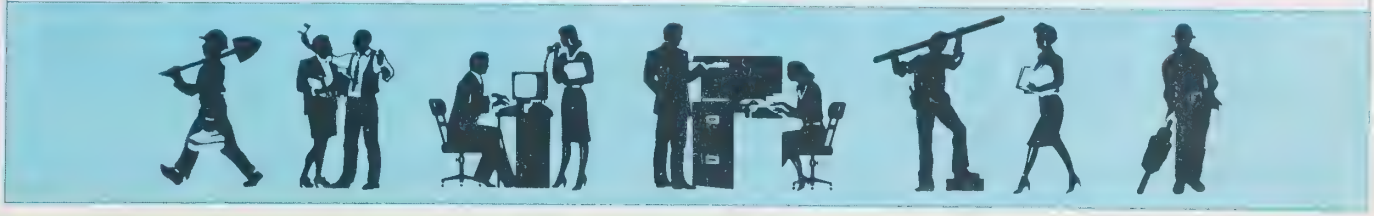
[3] Public and welfare services includes services in the areas of public administration, education, health, justice, and religion, as well as other social services. Business and financial services include transportation, communications, wholesale trade, banking, insurance, real estate, legal, accounting, and computer services, as well as other services to business. Consumer and personal services include retail trade, accommodations, restaurant and recreation services, and other personal and household services. These categories differ from those in regularly published Labour Force Survey series and have been developed for analytical purposes only.

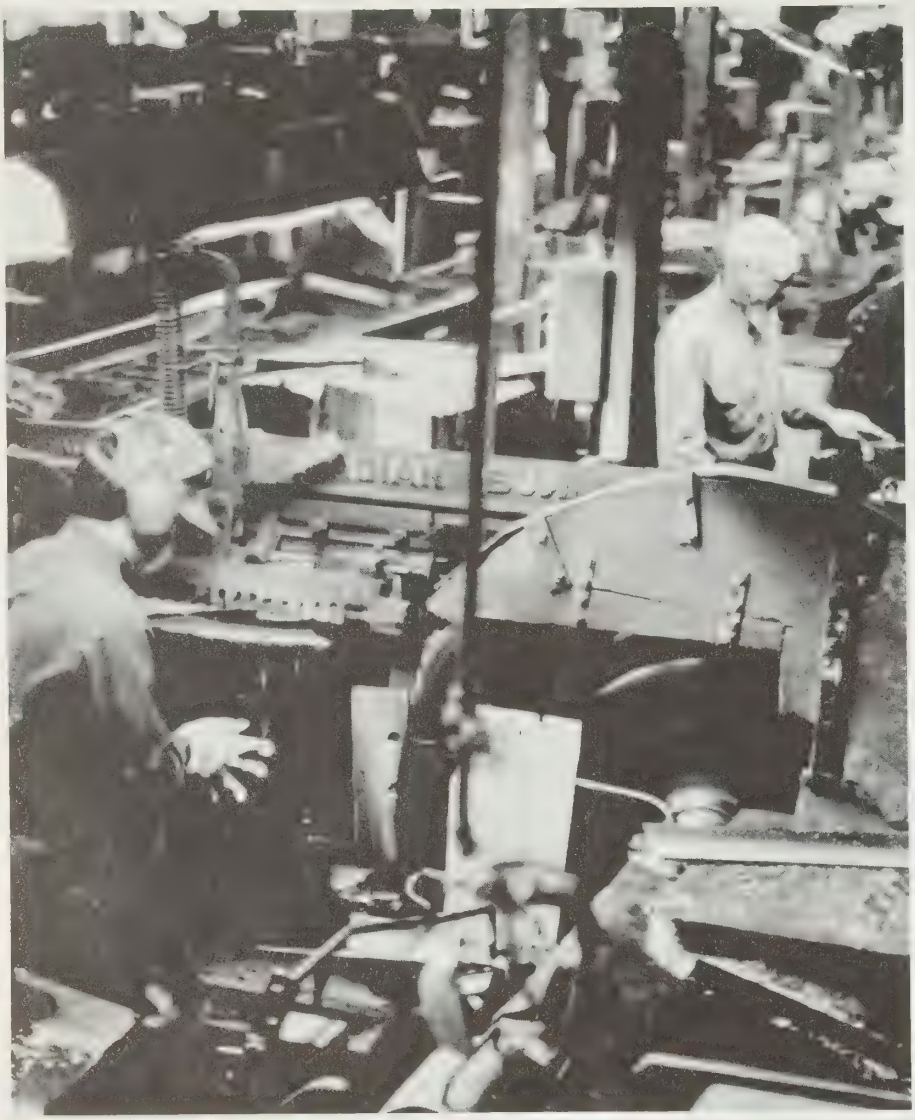
LABOUR FORCE INDICATORS, CANADA AND UNITED STATES, 1980-1987

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Total employment (000s)								
Canada	10,600	10,896	10,549	10,650	10,912	11,214	11,524	11,846
United States	99,303	100,397	99,526	100,834	105,003	107,150	109,597	112,440
Annual % change in employment								
Canada	..	2.8	-3.2	1.0	2.5	2.8	2.8	2.8
United States	..	1.1	-0.9	1.3	4.1	2.0	2.3	2.6
Employment — men (000s)								
Canada	6,400	6,497	6,204	6,196	6,320	6,457	6,600	6,737
United States	57,186	57,397	56,271	56,787	59,090	59,891	60,892	62,107
% of men employed								
Canada	74.3	73.9	69.4	68.4	68.9	69.6	70.3	70.9
United States	72.0	71.3	69.0	68.8	70.7	70.9	71.0	71.5
Employment — women (000s)								
Canada	4,199	4,398	4,344	4,454	4,592	4,757	4,924	5,109
United States	42,117	43,000	43,256	44,047	45,915	47,259	48,706	50,334
% of women employed								
Canada	46.7	47.9	46.5	47.0	47.8	48.9	50.1	51.3
United States	47.7	48.0	47.7	48.0	49.5	50.4	51.4	52.5
% employed in service sector								
Canada	65.9	65.6	68.1	68.9	68.7	69.2	69.4	69.7
United States	65.9	66.3	67.9	68.4	68.2	68.8	69.2	69.8
% employed in goods-producing sector								
Canada	34.1	33.8	31.9	31.1	31.3	30.8	30.6	30.3
United States	34.1	33.7	32.1	31.6	31.8	31.2	30.8	30.2
% employed part-time								
Canada	17.8	18.3	19.8	20.8	20.7	20.8	20.7	20.6
United States	16.9	17.1	18.2	18.4	17.6	17.4	17.4	17.3
Unemployment rate (%)								
Canada	7.4	7.5	10.9	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.6	8.8
United States	7.1	7.6	9.7	9.6	7.5	7.2	7.0	6.2
% unemployed six months or more								
Canada	15.3	15.9	20.0	28.2	26.3	25.9	23.8	23.8
United States	10.7	14.1	16.6	23.9	19.1	15.4	14.4	14.0

.. Figures not available.

Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division; United States Department of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings*.





More part-time work in Canada

A higher percentage of Canadian than American workers are employed part-time.[4] In 1987, 20.6% of Canadian workers were employed part-time compared with 17.3% in the United States. The Canadian figure was up considerably from 17.8% in 1980, whereas there was only a slight increase in the American rate from 16.9%.

Women account for most of the difference between part-time employment rates in the two countries. In 1987, 33.8% of employed Canadian women, compared with 26.1% of their American counterparts, worked part-time. By contrast, part-time employment rates of Canadian (10.6%) and American (10.2%) men were almost the same.

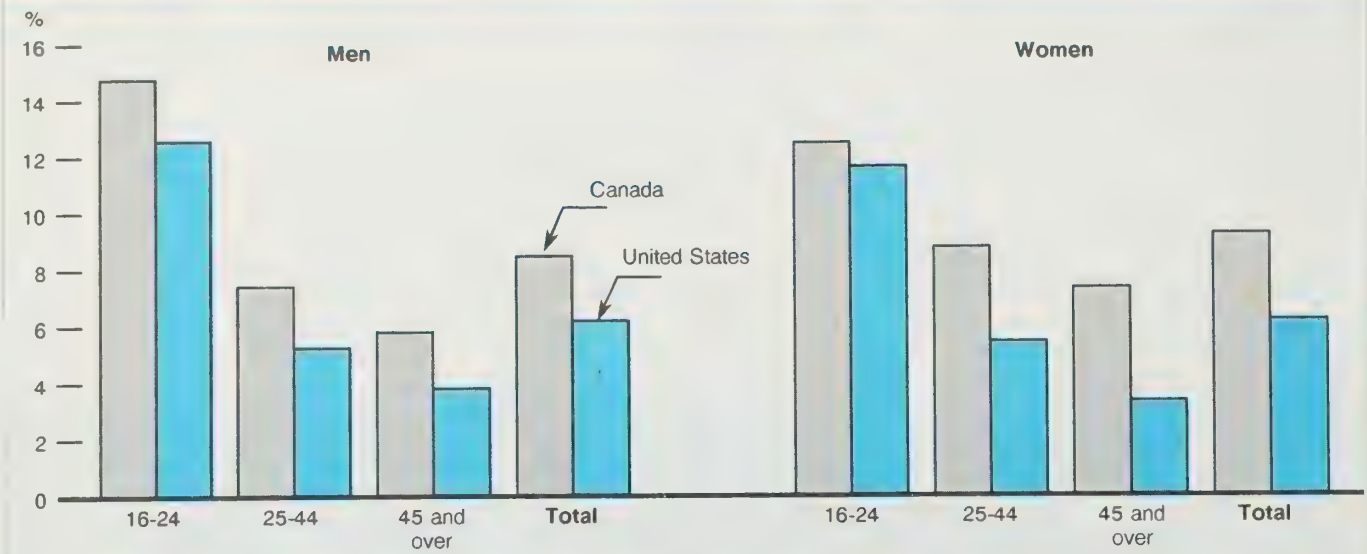
Unemployment higher in Canada

Unemployment trends in Canada and the United States have differed during the 1980s. Before the 1981-1983 recession, unemployment rates in the two countries were roughly similar. But during the recession, the Canadian rate increased much more sharply, peaking at 11.8% in 1983. By comparison, the annual American unemployment rate never exceeded 10% during this period. In addition, unemployment in the immediate post-recession period fell more slowly in Canada.

[4] Refers to those who usually work less than 35 hours per week. Regularly published Canadian data, which include only those who work less than 30 hours weekly, have been retabulated to produce comparable figures.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

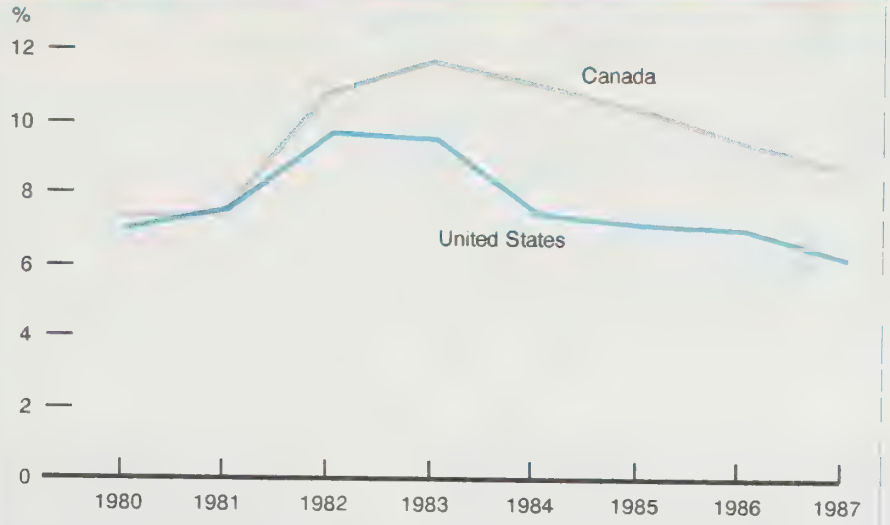
Unemployment rates, by age, Canada and United States, 1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division; United States Department of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings*.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Unemployment rates, Canada and United States, 1980-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division; United States Department of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings*.

Recently, however, unemployment has fallen more rapidly in Canada than in the United States, although in 1987 the Canadian rate was still higher than the American rate. Between 1985 and 1987, Canada's unemployment rate fell 1.7 percentage points from 10.5% to 8.8%, whereas the American rate declined one percentage point to 6.2%.

In both countries, unemployment rates are highest among 16-24-year-olds and decline in successive age groups. For men and women of all ages, unemployment rates are higher in Canada than in the United States.

More long-term unemployed in Canada

Canadians are more likely than Americans to be out of work for long periods. In 1987, almost a quarter (23.8%) of unemployed Canadians, compared with just 14.0% of unemployed Americans, had been out of work for six months or more.

Since the end of the 1981-1983 recession, long-term unemployment has fallen much more slowly in Canada than in the United States. From 1983 to 1987, as a proportion of total unemployment, people unemployed for at least six months fell 9.9 percentage points in the United States, but declined only 4.4 percentage points in Canada.

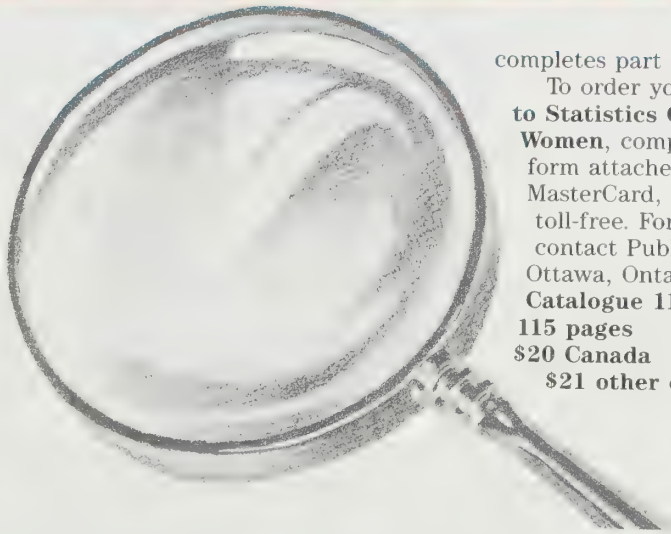
In both countries, long-term unemployment was highest among men aged 45 and over. Of all unemployed men in this age range in 1987, 38.0% of Canadians and 27.3% of Americans had been looking for work for six months or more.

David Gower *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

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INCOME OF CANADA'S SENIORS

by Colin Lindsay and Shelley Donald



Canada's senior population has grown dramatically in the last two decades. Between 1966 and 1986, the number of Canadians aged 65 and over rose 75% from just over 1.5 million to almost 2.7 million. In comparison, the population under age 65 increased just 22% in the same period. Consequently, people aged 65 and over made up 11% of the total population in 1986, up from 8% in 1966.

Rapid growth of the senior population, which is expected to continue for several more decades, has raised a number of issues. These include concerns about the ability of older people to maintain a satisfactory income and standard of living once they reach retirement age.

The income of people aged 65 and over has improved relative to that of other Canadians since the early 1970s, although it remains well below levels of the rest of the population.

This improvement in the relative income position of older Canadians has resulted from a number of factors, including maturing of the Canada and Quebec Pension Plans (C/QPP), full inflation protection of C/QPP and Old Age Security and Guaranteed Income Supplement (OAS/GIS) benefits, introduction of Provincial Income Supplements, and increased income from sources such as private pensions and investments.

Real incomes of Canadians 65 and over rising

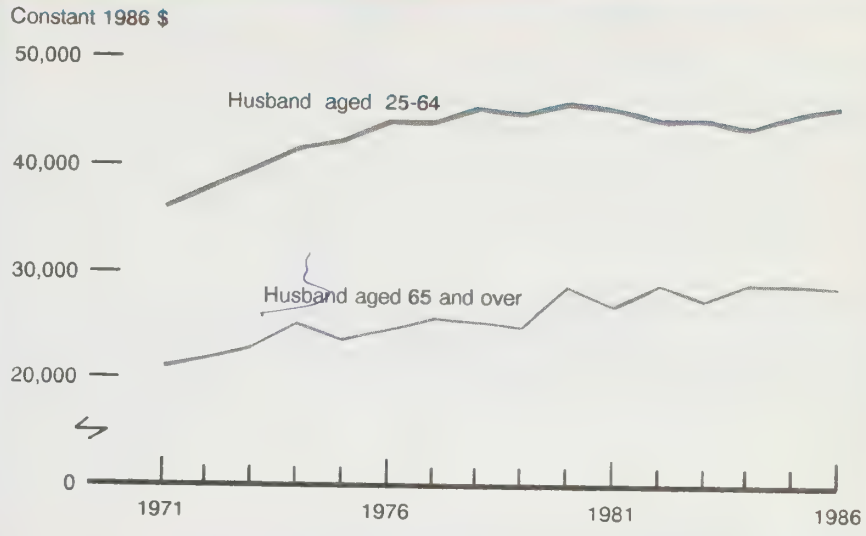
The real income, that is, income adjusted for inflation, of Canadians aged 65 and over has risen faster than that of the population aged 25-64 since the early 1970s.[1] Relative increases in real income were most striking among older unattached individuals — people living alone or in a household with unrelated persons. Between 1971 and 1986, average real incomes rose 61% for unattached women aged 65 and over and 36% for unattached men in this age range. In the same period, the average real income of unattached individuals aged 25-64 increased 28% for women and just 13% for men.

The average real income of elderly husband-wife families also rose more quickly than that of younger families. In the 1971-1986 period, the average real income of elderly families increased 35%, compared with 27% for families headed by men aged 25-64.

Much of the relative increase in the real income of older Canadians occurred during the late 1970s and early 1980s. Largely because of the recession in the early 1980s, the real income of many younger Canadians actually declined in that period. In contrast, the real income of the senior population continued to grow. Between 1979 and 1984, average real incomes rose 18% for unattached women aged 65 and over, 16% for elderly husband-wife families, and 11% for unattached older men. These gains were primarily the result of higher benefits from maturing Canada and Quebec Pension Plans and fully indexed C/QPP and OAS/GIS pensions.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

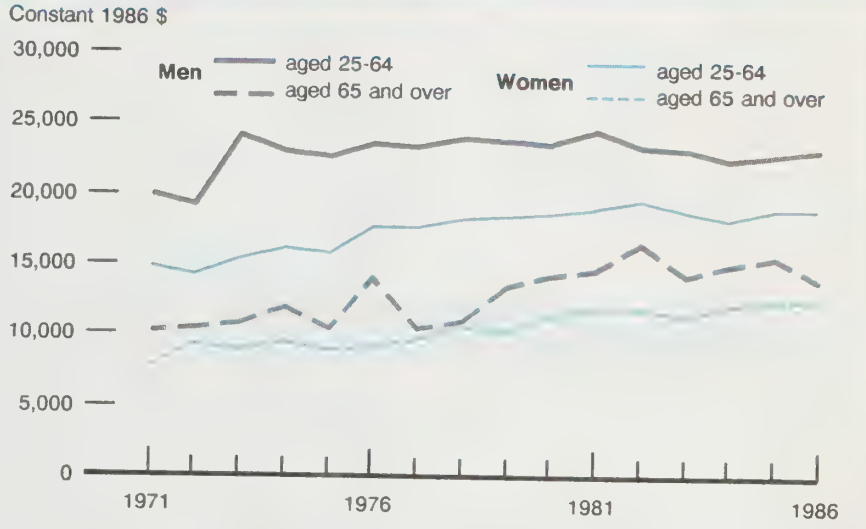
Average real income of husband-wife families, by age of husband, 1971-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average real income of unattached individuals, by age, 1971-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207.

Seniors' income still relatively low

Despite relatively large increases in real income of people aged 65 and over, their average income remains well below that of the rest of the population.

In 1986, elderly husband-wife families had an average income of $28,500, just 63% that of families headed by men aged 25-64; this was up from 59% in 1971.

The average income of unattached men aged 65 and over in 1986 was $13,900, just 60% that of unattached men aged 25-64. At the same time, unattached women aged 65 and over had an average income of $12,600, which was 66% that of comparable women aged 25-64. Both these percentages represent increases from 1971 when the respective figures were 51% and 53%.

Larger increases among older elderly

Increases in the real income of senior Canadians were greater among the older segments of this population. The average real income of families headed by men aged 75 and over rose 47% between 1971 and 1986, compared with 33% for families headed by men aged 65-74. Among unattached individuals, the gain was 46% for men aged 75 and over and 70% for women in this age range. In comparison, average real incomes of those aged 65-74 rose 32% for men and 58% for women.

The income levels of older elderly people, however, remain below those of

[1] This and subsequent conclusions are based on an analysis of money incomes and do not take into account the tax and price advantages and family benefits enjoyed by many seniors; including these might show even further improvement in the economic position of older Canadians relative to the rest of the population. As well, elderly families tend to be smaller than younger families, and therefore, may require less income.

65-74-year-olds, although the gap has closed since the early 1970s.

In 1986, the average income of families headed by men aged 75 and over was 79% that of families headed by men aged 65-74; this was up from 72% in 1971.

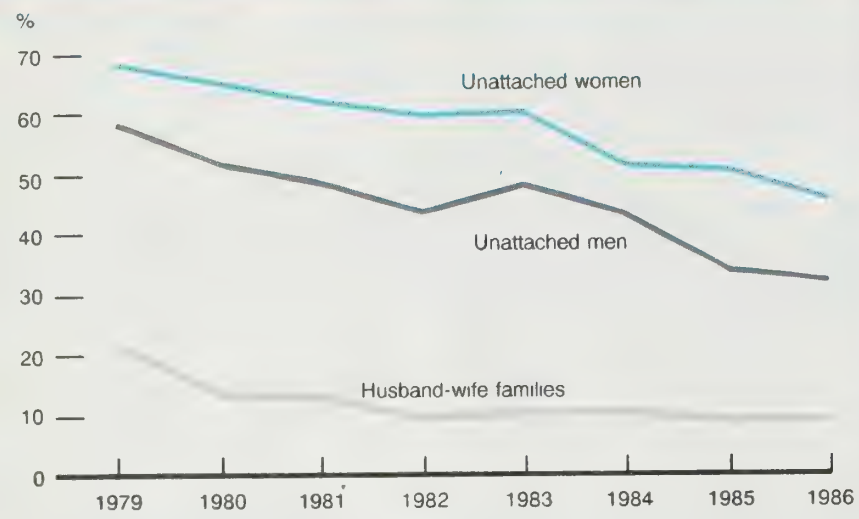
Among unattached individuals, the average income of men aged 75 and over in 1986 was 87% that of men aged 65-74; this compares with 78% in 1971. For women, those aged 75 and over had an average 1986 income which was 90% that of women aged 65-74, up from 83% in 1971.

Smaller proportion of low-income elderly

One result of the relatively large increases in real income among people aged 65 and over has been a major reduction in the proportion with low incomes. Between 1981 and 1986, the percentage of elderly people with incomes below Statistics Canada's low-income cut-offs[2] fell from 27% to 19%. In contrast, both the percentage of children under age 16 living in low-income families and the proportion of the population aged 16-64 with low incomes increased.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Low-income levels of elderly husband-wife families and unattached individuals, 1979-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-207

Distribution of income sources of men and women aged 65 and over, 1971 and 1986

	Men		Women		Total	
	1971	1986	1971	1986	1971	1986
			%			
OAS/GIS	28.1	25.2	59.5	45.3	39.6	34.4
C/QPP	2.1	16.3	1.1	11.0	1.7	13.9
Other government transfers	2.1	3.5	2.4	3.6	2.2	3.6
Investment income	20.2	18.9	19.6	24.1	20.0	21.2
Private pensions	15.8	20.1	8.5	10.5	13.2	15.7
Employment earnings	30.2	14.6	7.2	3.9	21.8	9.8
Other	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.0	1.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total income (constant 1986 $)	**12,554**	**16,760**	**6,183**	**10,527**	**9,122**	**13,212**

Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division.

The incidence of low income among older Canadians varies markedly for men and women depending on their family status. For example, unattached people aged 65 and over, particularly women, are among the poorest Canadians. Low-income rates of these groups, however, have fallen sharply since the late 1970s.

In 1986, almost half (46%) of unattached women aged 65 and over had incomes below the low-income cut-offs. This was a substantial improvement from 1979 when almost 70% of older unattached women had low incomes. Levels of low income also declined sharply among older unattached men from 59% in 1979 to 32% in 1986.

The incidence of low income also dropped among elderly husband-wife families. Between 1979 and 1986, the percentage of these families with low incomes fell from 22% to under 10%. As a result, levels of low income among elderly families have been slightly below those for comparable younger families since 1984.

Growing importance of public pensions

The importance of public pensions to the senior population has increased in the last decade and a half. Most of this increase was attributable to growth of the Canada and Quebec Pension Plan. In 1971, when this program was in its infancy, less than 2% of all elderly income came from C/QPP. By 1986, this source provided nearly 14% of the total income of the older population.

The proportion of the income of older Canadians coming from other government transfer payments (other than OAS/GIS) also rose, from 2.2% of the total in 1971 to 3.6% in 1986. On the other hand, the share of the income of older people coming from OAS/GIS has fallen in recent years, from about 40% in 1971 to 34% in 1986.

Nonetheless, together these three public sources accounted for 52% of the total income of Canadians aged 65 and over in 1986, up from 44% in 1971.

While private sources account for a shrinking share of the income of older Canadians, trends for different types of private income varied considerably. The percentage of the total income of seniors coming from private pensions grew from 13% in 1971 to 16% in 1986, and the share resulting from investments rose

[2] The low-income cut-offs define individuals or families as having low incomes if the household unit spends more than 58.5% of income on food, shelter, and clothing.



from 20% to 21%. On the other hand, the proportion of all elderly income coming from employment earnings has fallen from 22% in 1971 to less than 10% in 1986.

Growth of Canada and Quebec Pension Plans

Much of the increased importance of Canada and Quebec Pension Plan benefits to the income of older Canadians is attributable to greater coverage of these programs. In 1971, when C/QPP had been operating for only a few years, just 13% of the senior population received these benefits. By 1986, 1.6 million older Canadians, or 61% of the total, were C/QPP beneficiaries.

Men are generally more likely than women to receive C/QPP benefits. In 1986, 79% of men aged 65 and over, compared with 47% of elderly women, were C/QPP beneficiaries. As a result of this difference, and because average benefits paid to men ($3,500) were higher than those paid to women ($2,500), C/QPP benefits make up a greater share of the income of older men. In 1986, 16% of the income of men aged 65 and over, compared with 11% of that of women, came from C/QPP. This difference should shrink in the future as the rising numbers of women in the labour force build up pension credits under these programs.

OAS/GIS: cornerstone of the income of older Canadians

Old Age Security benefits are paid to all Canadians aged 65 and over who meet minimum residency requirements. As well, approximately half of all seniors receive additional support through Guaranteed Income Supplements, which are based on a means-test and are paid only to pensioners who have little or no income above OAS. GIS payments are reduced by $1 for each $2 of monthly income from sources other than OAS.

The proportion of the senior population receiving GIS benefits, particularly full benefits, has declined sharply. By 1986, half of OAS pensioners received GIS benefits; 11% had no income from other sources and received the maximum benefit. In 1978, 54% had received GIS support, and 19% had received full benefits.

Largely because they tend to have less income from other sources, the groups for whom OAS/GIS benefits are most important are women, the older elderly, and unattached individuals.

In 1986, OAS/GIS benefits made up 45% of the income of older women, compared with 25% of that of men. As well, OAS/GIS pensions accounted for 44% of



the income of people aged 75 and over, compared with 34% for those aged 70-74 and 27% for 65-69-year-olds. Also, 42% of the income of older unattached women and 35% of that of comparable men came from OAS/GIS. In contrast, OAS/GIS accounted for only 25% of the income of elderly husband-wife families.

Private income: different sources for men and women

Private sources[3] remain a major component of the income of older Canadians; however, the relative importance of these sources varies for men and women.

Investment income is especially important for older women. While the actual dollar amount of investment income received by women was less than that for men, this source accounted for 24% of all income of women aged 65 and over, compared with 19% for older men.

On the other hand, private pensions are more important to older men. In 1986, over 20% of the income of men aged 65 and over, compared with less than 11% of that of women, came from private pensions. The proportion of both older men and women receiving private pension income, though, has increased. In 1986, 48% of men aged 65 and over, compared with 31% in 1971, reported income from private pensions; for women, the increase was from 11% to 24%.

[3] For more information on income from private pension plans and investments, see Oja, G., *Pensions and Incomes of the Elderly in Canada 1971-1985*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-588, No. 2.

Wealth of older Canadians

To some extent, income figures may understate the ability of older Canadians to maintain a comfortable standard of living in that these figures do not include financial holdings and other accumulated assets.

Generally, those aged 65 and over have greater assets than younger people. In 1984, elderly families had an average net worth of $131,000. This compared with just over $100,000 for all families. At the same time, unattached individuals aged 65 and over had an average net worth of $52,000, compared with $38,000 for all unattached individuals.

Net financial assets and home equity constitute most of the wealth of older Canadians. In 1984, each of these sources made up over 35% of the net worth of elderly families and over 40% of that of unattached older individuals.

As well, 80% of families headed by someone aged 65 or over owned their own homes, compared with 71% of all families. In addition, 91% of elderly families owning homes did not have a mortgage, compared with just 48% of all home-owning families.



Again, the gap between the importance of private pensions to the retirement income of men and women is expected to close in the future as the full impact of women's increased labour force participation is felt.

While the contribution of employment earnings to total income declined for both older men and women, the drop was greater among men. Between 1971 and 1986, earnings as a proportion of the income of older men fell from 30% to 15%. In the same period, the share of older women's income from this source declined from 7% to 4%.

Colin Lindsay *is Managing Editor and* **Shelley Donald** *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

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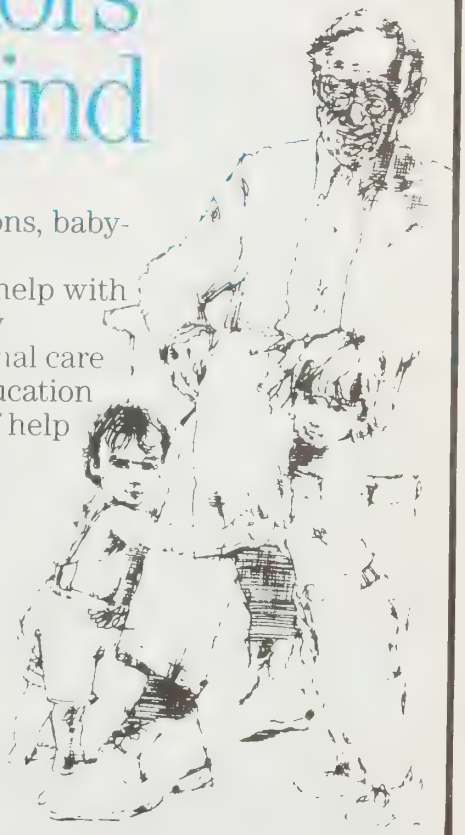
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LIVING ARRANGEMENTS OF CANADA'S "OLDER ELDERLY" POPULATION

by Gordon E. Priest

A major change has occurred in the living arrangements of Canada's "older elderly" population (aged 75 and over) since 1971. A higher proportion of these people are living alone or in institutions, while the percentage living with others, primarily family, has declined. And projections to the year 2001 indicate that these trends are likely to continue.

As their living arrangements change, individuals aged 75 and over face a period of adjustment and resettlement. These changes present challenges to the public, private, and volunteer sectors.

Because the 75 and over age group is a fast-growing segment of the population, their living arrangements have implications for policymakers and planners. The next 15 years will likely see a substantial increase in demand for accommodations and services for these seniors.



More older elderly living alone or in institutions

For both men and women aged 75 and over, the number living alone or in institutions increased most rapidly between 1971 and 1986.[1]

Almost a quarter of a million (245,600) older elderly women lived alone in 1986; this was a 147% rise from 99,300 in 1971. Over the same period, the number living in institutions increased 127% from 53,200 to 120,900. These gains far outpaced the 68% increase in the total older elderly female population.

As a result of these rapid growth rates, by 1986, 38% of women aged 75 and over were living alone, up from 26% in 1971. The proportion in institutions also rose from 14% to 19%.

[1] Institutions refer to establishments providing some level of custody or care, as distinct from other collective dwellings such as hotels or rooming houses where no care is provided.

The number of older elderly men living alone or in institutions also grew, although increases were not as pronounced as among women. In 1986, 65,800 men aged 75 and over lived alone, up 78% from 37,000 in 1971. The number in institutions rose at almost the same rate (77%) from 25,700 to 45,300. In comparison, the increase of the total male population in this age range was just 39%.

As a consequence, between 1971 and 1986, the proportion of older elderly men living alone rose from 13% to 17%, and the percentage in institutions increased from 9% to 12%.

A fast-growing group

The number of people aged 75 and over increased 56% from 668,000 in 1971 to 1,040,000 in 1986. By contrast, the population younger than 75 rose just 16% in the same period. As a result, older elderly people constituted 4.1% of the Canadian population in 1986, up from 3.1% in 1971. Projections indicate that by 2001 Canada's older elderly will increase to 1.7 million and will represent more than 6% of the total population.

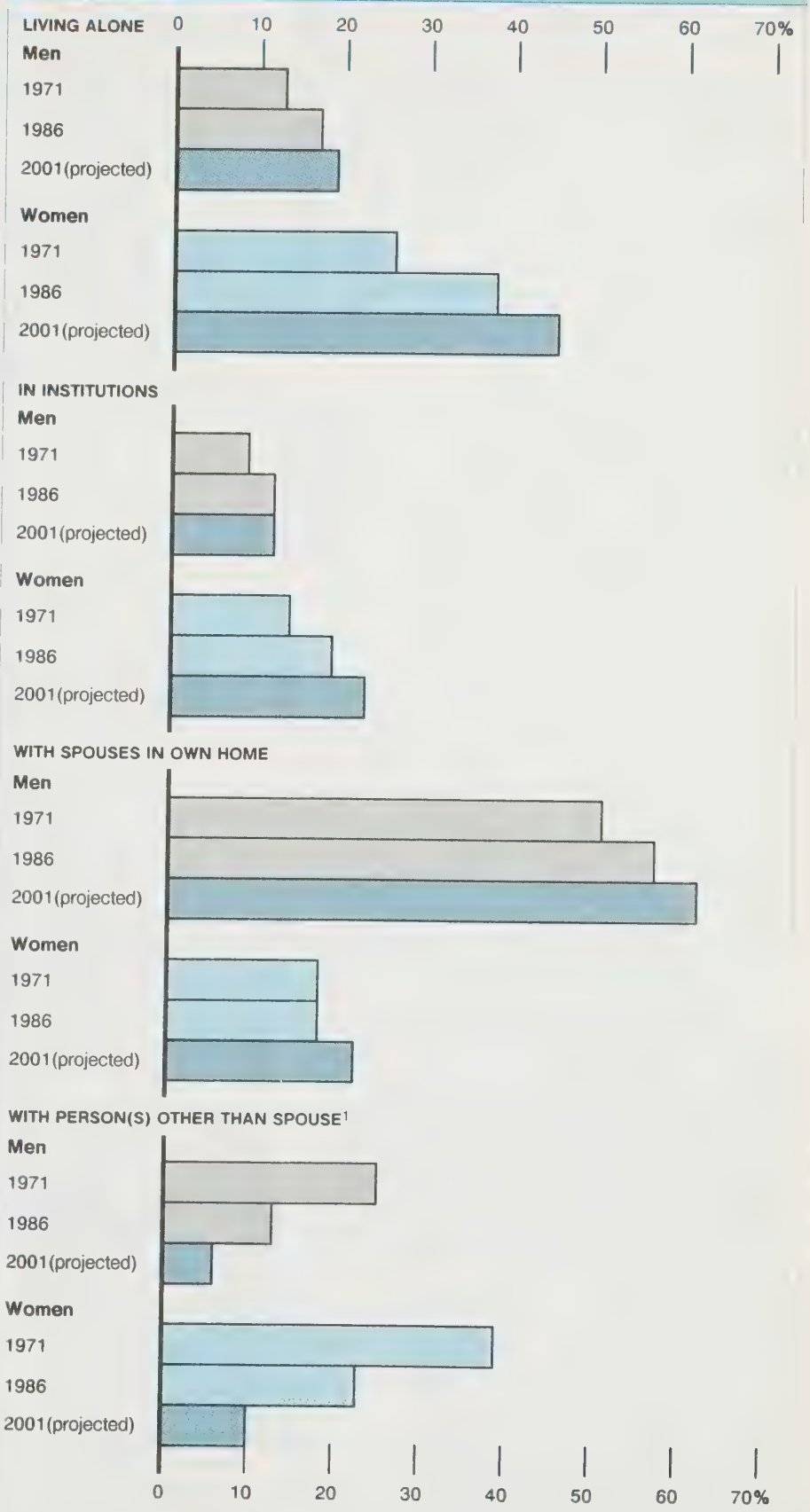
Women make up the majority of people aged 75 and over. By 1986, 62% of the older elderly were women, up from 58% in 1971. No change is expected by 2001, as the female component of the population aged 75 and over is projected to remain at 62%.

The female majority among older elderly people reflects, in part, women's lower mortality rate. In 1981, a woman aged 75 could expect to live about 12 more years, compared with 9 years for a man of the same age. Also, since women usually marry men older than themselves, their husbands are likely to predecease them. As a result, by age 75, the marital status and living arrangements of women differ sharply from those of men.

Many more older elderly women than men have been widowed. In 1986, about two-thirds of women aged 75 and over were widows, and fewer than one-quarter were married. By contrast, only a quarter of their male contemporaries were widowed, and almost two-thirds were married. Similarly, among those aged 85 and over, about 8 out of 10 women were widowed, compared with 4 out of 10 men.

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Living arrangements of population aged 75 and over, by sex, 1971, 1986 and 2001



[1] In own home or in others' home.

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, and Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division.

Proportion of married couples rises

Older elderly men are much more likely than women of the same age to be living with their spouse in their own home. Moreover, the percentage of men in this situation increased from 51% in 1971 to 57% in 1986. By contrast, the proportion of older elderly women living at home with their spouse remained stable at 18%.

Fewer older elderly people living with others

The number and percentage of people aged 75 and over living with someone other than their spouse, either in their own home or in someone else's home, has decreased.[2] By 1986, 146,200 older elderly women without a spouse were living with others, a decline from 152,800 in 1971. At the same time, the number of older elderly men living with others fell from 69,500 to 51,700.

This meant that the proportion of older elderly women who lived with others was 23% in 1986, down from 39% in 1971. Similarly, the proportion of men aged 75 and over living with others was almost halved, dropping from 25% to 13%.

Much of this decline was caused by the falling percentage of older elderly people living in someone else's home. For women, the proportion dropped from 26% to 15%, while for men, the figure fell from 17% to 9%.

The percentage of older elderly people sharing their own home also declined. Among women, the proportion fell from 14% to 8%; the drop among men was from 7% to 4%.

The trend away from living with others may indicate, in part, that fewer adults now occupy the same dwelling as their elderly parents. Women's growing labour force participation has reduced the likelihood that someone will be at home to look after an elderly mother or father. On the other hand, rising incomes among elderly people may have enabled more of them to maintain separate living quarters.

An older group in institutions

People aged 75 and over who lived in institutions in 1986 tended to be older than their counterparts 15 years earlier. In 1986, 25% of all older elderly women in institutions were aged 90 and over; this was up from 15% in 1971. The percentage of older elderly men in institutions who were aged 90 and over also increased from 13% in 1971 to 19% in 1986.

Thus, in just 15 years, not only did the institutionalized elderly population increase sharply, but the age distribution of that population also changed. This shift, however, may not have been driven solely by demographic factors. It is possible that more restrictive admission practices may have screened out younger applicants.

Trends projected to continue

Projections of the living arrangements of older elderly people to the turn of the century indicate that the trend toward living alone or in institutions is likely to continue. At the same time, the proportion living with others is expected to decline even more.

By 2001, a projected 35% of people aged 75 and over will be living alone, up from 30% in 1986. The number of women living alone is likely to nearly double from 245,600 in 1986 to close to half a million in 2001, when they will account for 45% of all older elderly women. Although the number of older elderly men living alone is also expected to nearly double, by 2001 they will still make up just 19% of all men aged 75 and over, compared with 17% in 1986.

In many cases, living alone will necessitate moving to smaller and more manageable accommodations than a large house. Such accommodations may be provided by the current housing market. Alternatively, new housing construction specifically designed for the older elderly or conversions of existing structures could fulfill these requirements. The growing number living alone also has implications for services to this population, which include home care, home security, transportation, and social support, if older elderly people are to maintain some independence and delay the day when they must seek the fuller care of institutions.

The demand for institutional care for the older elderly is also likely to grow. It has been projected that the female population age 75 and over in institutions could reach almost a quarter of a

The cost of independence, 1986

A substantial number of people aged 75 and over pay a high percentage of their household income to maintain independent living accommodations. Renters are more likely than homeowners to spend a high proportion of their income on shelter costs. Also, people who live alone, especially women, tend to devote a larger share of their income to shelter than do couples.

In 1986, of older elderly renters who lived alone, 52 out of 100 women and 46 out of 100 men spent at least 30% of their income on shelter; this was also the case for 33 out of 100 older elderly couples who rented their accommodations. As well, 20 women and 15 men out of every 100 living alone and renting spent more than 50% of their income on shelter expenses; this compared with just 6 in 100 couples.

Shelter costs were a much lighter burden for older elderly homeowners. For instance, the numbers spending at least one-third of their income on housing ranged from 4 in 100 couples to 21 in 100 women living alone. Only a small proportion of older elderly homeowners paid 50% or more of their income for shelter.

Shelter costs as a percentage of household income of older elderly renters and homeowners (1986 spending on 1985 income)

	Number of persons per 100 population paying at least 30% of income on shelter		Number of persons per 100 population paying at least 50% of income on shelter	
	Renters	Owners	Renters	Owners
Women living alone	52	21	20	5
Men living alone	46	15	15	4
Couples (no other household members)	33	4	6	1

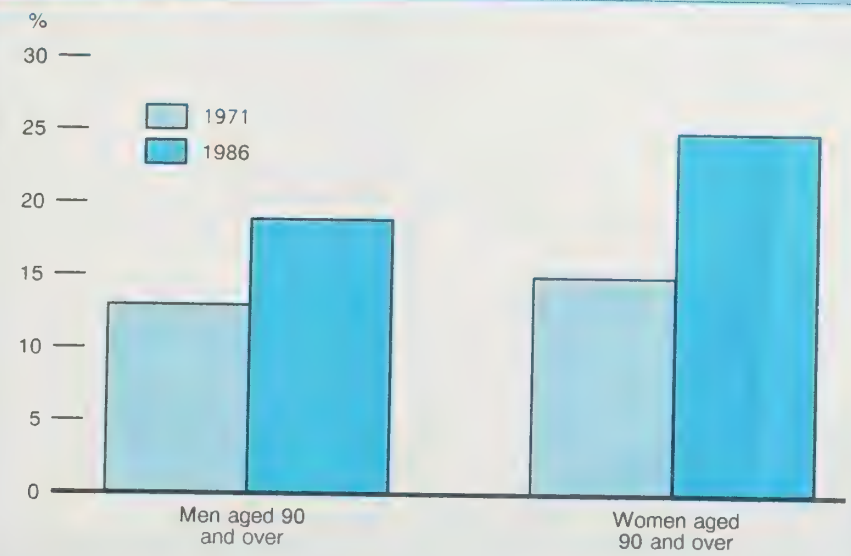
Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

[2] An examination of factors behind decisions about the living arrangements of the elderly is presented in "The Hypothesis of Age Patterns in Living Arrangement Passages," by Leroy O. Stone and Susan Fletcher in *Aging in Canada: Social Perspectives*, edited by Victor W. Marshall, 1987, Fitzhenry and Whiteside.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of institutionalized men and women aged 90 and over, 1971 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Projecting the living arrangements of the older elderly population

Projections to 2001 of the population aged 75 and over are based on the publication, *Population Projections for Canada, Provinces and Territories, 1984–2006.* However, some adjustments have been made to these projections. For example, the Census showed that in 1986, the population in the older age groups was not as numerous as had been projected. Therefore, projections to 2001 of the number of people aged 75 and over have been lowered.

Projections of the living arrangements of older elderly people are based heavily on trends since 1971. But obviously, some of these trends will eventually slow and stabilize. For instance, the proportion of people living with others cannot decrease much further at the present rate without reaching zero. Nevertheless, for the next 15-year period, it has been assumed that trends which prevailed in the last 15 years will continue.

Projections of living arrangements could be based on different assumptions, particularly with regard to the institutionalized population. For example, increases in the real income of older elderly people may enable them to purchase services necessary to maintain themselves in their own homes for a longer time. Another possibility is that funding may not be sufficient to expand institutional units at a rate that matches expected demand. Alternatively, governments and the volunteer sector may increase assistance to community-based support services, which would allow older elderly people to continue to live in their own homes.

Advances in medicine and technology could either raise or lower institutionalization rates. Medical technology may keep individuals alive in a disabled state, and thereby increase the numbers requiring institutional care. On the other hand, restorative and rehabilitative medicine could mean a smaller proportion of the population spending their final years in a chronic care setting.

Living arrangements of older elderly population, by sex, Canada, 1971 and 1986, and projections for 2001

	1971		1986		2001 (projected)	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Men						
Alone	37,000	13	65,800	17	124,500	19
With spouse	142,400	51	221,900	57	407,000	62
With others	69,500	25	51,700	13	43,000	6
In own home	20,700	7	17,000	4	13,500	2
In others' home	48,800	17	34,700	9	29,500	4
Institution	25,700	9	45,300	12	75,500	12
Other	6,600	2	6,700	2	6,500	1
Total	**281,100**	**100**	**391,300**	**100**	**656,500**	**100**
Women						
Alone	99,300	26	245,600	38	474,000	45
With spouse	70,300	18	119,800	18	231,500	22
With others	152,800	39	146,200	23	111,000	10
In own home	52,300	14	49,100	8	32,000	3
In others' home	100,500	26	97,100	15	79,000	8
Institution	53,200	14	120,900	19	242,500	23
Other	11,000	3	15,800	2	5,500	1
Total	**386,700**	**100**	**648,200**	**100**	**1,053,500**	**100**

Sources: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada, and projections from Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-520 adjusted according to results of 1986 Census.

million in 2001, about double the 1986 figure. The number of men of the same age in institutions is expected to rise from 45,300 to 75,500. As a result, close to 19% of all older elderly people will be living in institutions by 2001, up from 16% in 1986.

At the same time, the proportion of older elderly people living with others is expected to decline sharply. For women, that percentage is projected to fall from 23% in 1986 to 10% in 2001. The corresponding figures for men drop from 13% to 6%. This is an abrupt change from 1971, when living with others was the most common alternative for women (39%) and the second most frequent option for men (25%) in this age range.

The proportion of older elderly people living with their spouse is projected to rise for both sexes. For men aged 75 and over, the percentage living with their spouse will rise from 57% in 1986 to 62% in 2001. For women, an upturn from 18% to 22% is expected.

Gordon E. Priest *is Director of Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

Our Report on Health and Social Support has some fascinating things to say...

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☐ Half of adult Canadians either smoke or are exposed to second-hand smoke in their homes. ☐ Young women are more likely than young men to smoke regularly. ☐ In 1978, one in five drinkers consumed more than 13 drinks a week. By 1985, the proportion had decreased to one in eight.

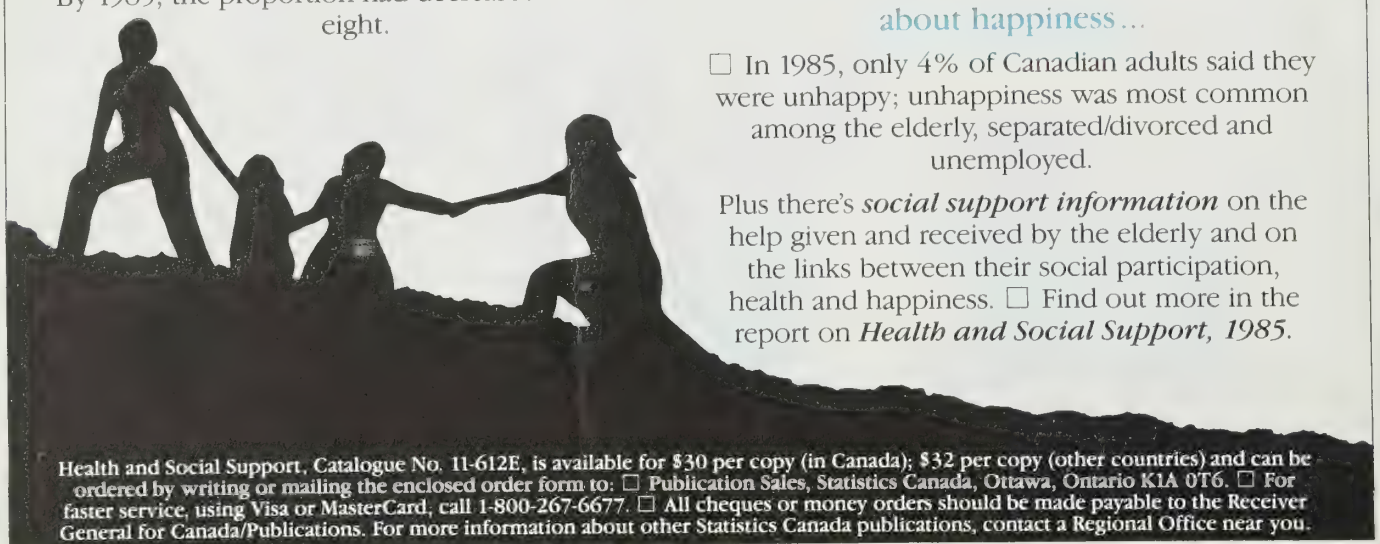
about overall health

☐ Eight in ten Canadians rate their health as good or excellent. ☐ Close to 40% of adults are overweight. ☐ Lower income Canadians see their doctor more and their dentist less than higher income Canadians.

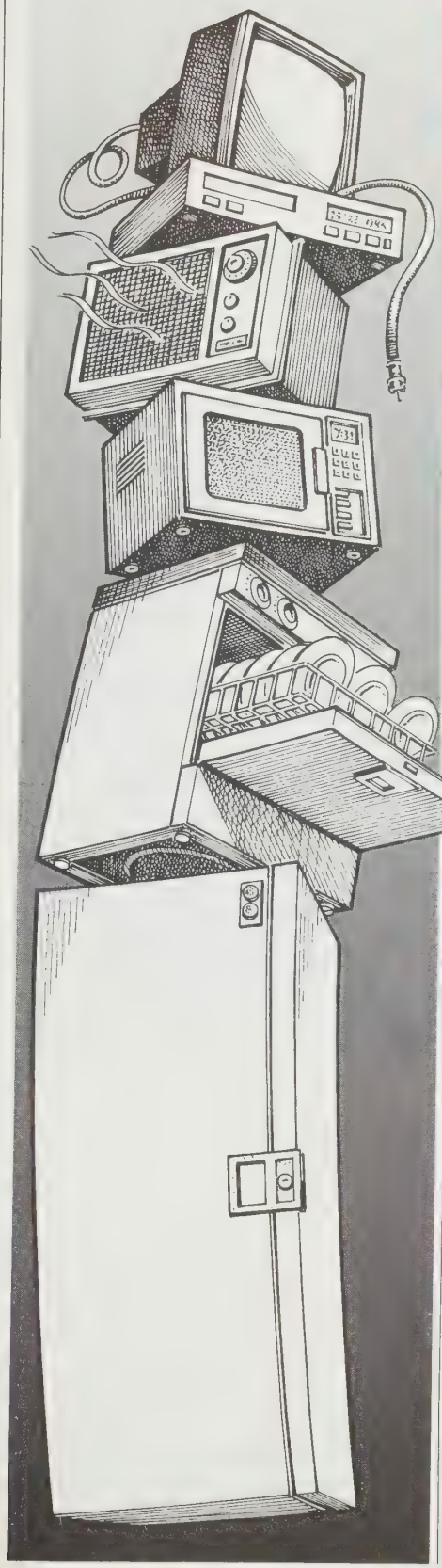
about happiness...

☐ In 1985, only 4% of Canadian adults said they were unhappy; unhappiness was most common among the elderly, separated/divorced and unemployed.

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NEW NECESSITIES
POPULAR HOUSEHOLD APPLIANCES

by Mary Sue Devereaux

A number of recently introduced household appliances have had such wide appeal and gained acceptance so rapidly that they have almost become "necessities". Videocassette recorders (VCRs) and microwave ovens are examples of popular technological innovations that have entered the inventory of a substantial proportion of Canadian households. Cable television, freezers, dishwashers, and air conditioners could also be included among today's new necessities, while home computers and pay-TV may be the necessities of tomorrow.

Four in ten with VCRs or microwave ovens

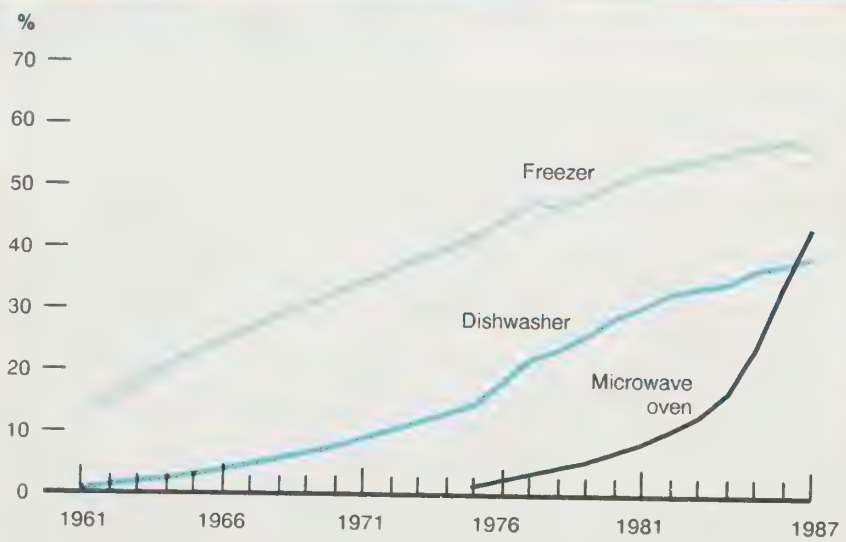
VCRs and microwave ovens have been the growth appliances of the 1980s. In 1983, just 6% of Canadian households had videocassette recorders; by 1987, the proportion had risen to 45%. Acquisition of microwave ovens was almost as fast. From 5% in 1979, the percentage of homes with microwave ovens increased to 43% in 1987.

Freezers in more than half of households

A number of other household appliances have been around longer, but ownership

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of households with new kitchen necessities, 1961-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 64-202.

continues to grow. For instance, by 1987, 57% of homes had freezers, up from 51% in 1980 and just 13% in 1961. Growth potential for freezers may be limited by the fact that one-third of Canadian households are in apartments or flats, where a lack of space may make freezers impractical. Also, improvements in the effectiveness and size of refrigerator freezer compartments may have reduced the need for a separate appliance.

Tuning in

Cable television is one of the most prevalent new necessities. The proportion of Canadian homes with a cable connection was 67% in 1987, having risen steadily from 40% in 1975. Pay-TV is much less common, with just 10% of Canadian households subscribing in 1986. Cable- and pay-TV are not available in all areas; however, as the accessibility of these services increases, it is likely that they will become part of a growing proportion of households.

Washing up/cooling down

Although dishwashers and air conditioning (central or window-type) have been available for over 25 years, widespread acceptance as standard household equipment has been relatively slow. In the early 1960s, fewer than 3% of Canadian homes had either appliance. By 1980, close to 30% of households had dishwashers, while 17% had air conditioning. A slow rise in the 1980s brought the proportion of dishwasher-equipped homes to almost 40% in 1987 and the percentage with air conditioning to 20%.

More than one

While telephones and television sets are now "necessities" in nearly all of Canada's households, they are not "new". The saturation level (90%) for both was reached in the mid-1960s, and by 1987, 98% of Canadian homes were equipped with these appliances.

Increasingly, however, Canadians are finding it desirable to have more than one telephone or television. In 1961, just 8% of households had two or more telephones; by 1987, that proportion had risen to 57%. Similarly, the percentage of homes with at least two television sets rose from 4% in 1961 to 47% in 1987. In fact, by 1987, 28% of Canadian households had two or more colour TVs.

Data processing at home

The next generation of necessities may include home computers. In 1986, just 10% of homes had a computer.

Ownership rises with income

Not surprisingly, the higher the household income, the more likely the household is to be equipped with the new necessities. For instance, 65% of households with annual incomes of $55,000 and over had microwave ovens in 1987; at the less-than-$10,000 income level, the proportion was only 18%. Similarly, while 69% of households in the $55,000-and-over bracket had VCRs, the percentage was just 17% in the less-than-$10,000 income range. The corresponding proportions for dishwashers were 69% at the top of the income scale and 13% at the bottom.

The same trend is apparent with freezers. At the high income level, 70% of households had freezers compared with just 33% of households with incomes less than $10,000. This discrepancy may, in part, reflect the kind of dwellings in which the two groups lived. Whereas 78% of households in the high-income category occupied a single detached house, the majority (61%) of low-income households were in apartments, flats, or mobile homes.

A cable-TV connection was also associated with household income. At the $55,000-and-over level, almost eight in 10 households (78%) had a cable hook-up. Although the proportion was smaller in low-income households, more than half (53%) of these homes were cable subscribers.

From novelty to necessity

Many items that were considered luxuries when they first came on the market are now standard household fixtures. Virtually all Canadian homes are equipped with refrigerators, radios, television sets, and telephones. In fact, these appliances have long ceased to be novelties, having reached the saturation point (90% of households) at least 20 years ago.

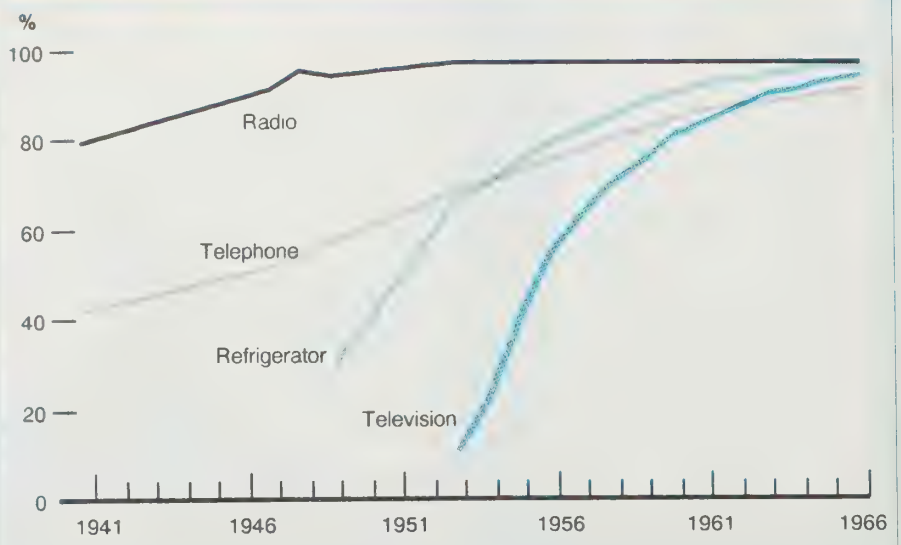
For example, only three out of ten households (29%) were equipped with refrigerators in 1948. By 1954, the proportion had more than doubled to seven in ten (70%), and the 90% mark came in 1960.

Radio and television reached the saturation level in a relatively short time. Even in 1941, radios could be found in the majority (78%) of Canadian households; by 1947, the percentage was 90%. Similarly, it took only about a decade for most households to acquire a television set. The proportion of homes with TVs rose from 10% in 1953 to 90% in 1963.

Telephones came to Canadian households at a slightly slower pace. In 1941, just 40% of homes had a telephone, and in 1947, the proportion was only 50%. The saturation point was not reached until 1966.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of households with radios, telephones, refrigerators, and televisions 1941-1966



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 64-202.

Husband-wife families with children best equipped

In addition to income, the likelihood that a household will have the new necessities is associated with family type. As an example, relatively high proportions of husband-wife families with children under age 18 had freezers (75%), VCRs (65%), microwave ovens (56%), and dishwashers (56%). Also, the annual income of this type of household was well above the 1986 average ($44,400 as opposed to $35,700), and 73% of these families lived in single detached houses in 1987.

By contrast, while lone-parent families with children under age 18 may have had the same needs and desires as two-parent families, low income (an average of $19,100 in 1986) seems to have blocked acquisition of many goods for a large number of lone-parent households. One-third of these households had microwave ovens compared with more than half of husband-wife households with children under age 18. The proportions of lone-parent families with VCRs (38%), dishwashers (29%), and freezers (43%) were at least 25 percentage points lower than the corresponding figures for two-parent families with children under age 18.

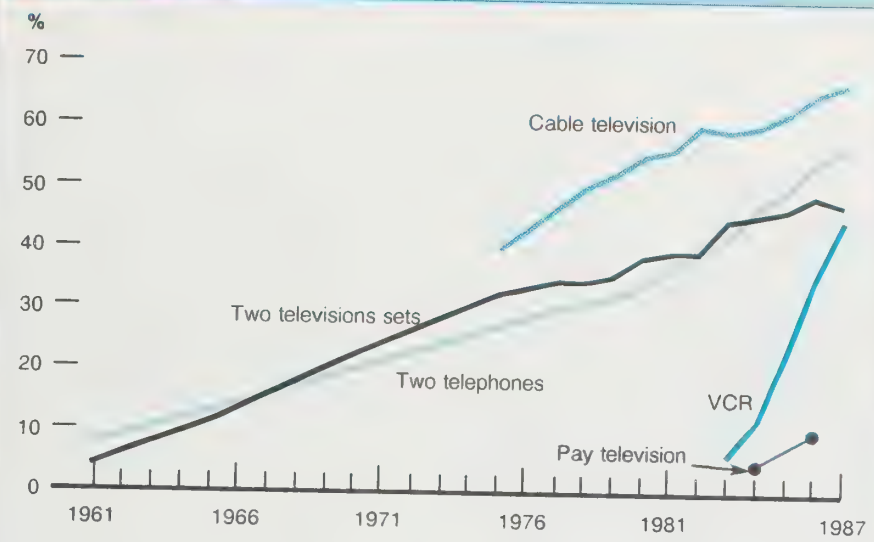
Married couples without children at home were generally more likely than lone-parent families with children under age 18 to have the new necessities, but they were much less likely to have them than were other households with children. Married couples, however, were not a homogeneous group, in that the category ranges from newlyweds just becoming established to empty-nesters who have retired and may have considerable discretionary income.

The new necessities were least likely to be found in one-person households. While all ownership rates were low, the age of the person had some bearing on the items that he or she would have. People aged 65 and over who lived alone were more likely than their younger counterparts to have freezers (37% versus 23%) and air conditioning (20% versus 16%). On the other hand, the younger group was more likely to have VCRs (27% versus 8%), microwave ovens (25% versus 18%), pay-TV (9% versus 3%), and home computers (5% versus 1%).

One new necessity that had very little relationship to household type was cable television. About two-thirds of households (whether one-person, lone-parent, or husband-wife with and without young children) had cable hook-ups.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of households with new communications necessities, 1961-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 64-202.

Percentage of households with new necessities, by selected 1986 income groups, 1987

New necessity	1986 income group			Average 1986 income of households possessing item/service
	Less than $10,000	More than $55,000	Total	
	%			$
Cable-TV	53	78	67	38,300
Freezer	33	70	57	39,800
VCR	17	69	45	44,700
Microwave oven	18	65	43	43,800
Dishwasher	13	69	39	47,100
Air conditioning	11	30	20	43,900
Home computer*	2	20	10	46,900
Pay-TV*	4	15	10	43,300

* 1985 income data.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-218.

City/country

City or country living made little difference to ownership of some of the new necessities, while others were more common in rural areas than in cities. Still other items and services were more likely to be found in city than in country households.

VCR ownership rates were almost identical for large cities and rural regions. In 1987, 46% of households in urban areas with 100,000 or more population had VCRs; the proportion in rural areas was 42%. Similarly, 40% of city households had dishwashers compared with 39% in the country.

On the other hand, freezers were much more prevalent in rural than in city homes. More than eight out of 10 (81%) rural households had freezers, in contrast to fewer than half (48%) of households in large cities. This difference no doubt reflects, to some extent, the small number of apartment-dwellers in rural areas.

Microwave ovens were also more common in country (49%) than in city households (40%), but compared with freezers, the difference was not large.

Percentage of households with new necessities, by province, 1987

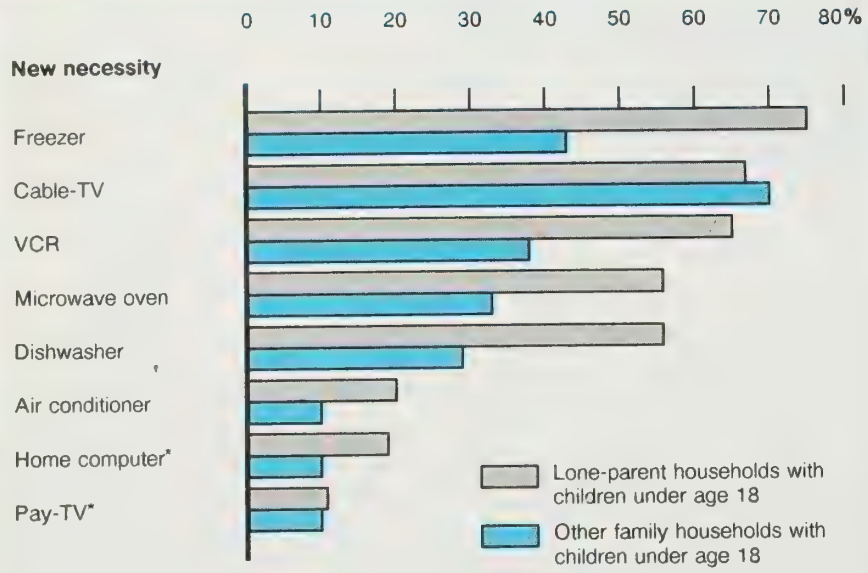
New necessity	Newfoundland	Prince Edward Island	Nova Scotia	New Brunswick	Quebec	Ontario	Manitoba	Saskatchewan	Alberta	British Columbia	Canada
						%					
Cable television	61	46	60	59	58	73	67	48	67	84	67
Freezer	71	60	61	66	45	58	68	77	66	60	57
Two or more telephones	49	47	53	51	53	61	58	48	63	54	57
Two or more TVs	52	42	50	50	51	46	50	47	48	40	47
VCR	45	35	45	43	44	46	47	40	48	44	45
Microwave oven	22	33	35	33	37	44	53	57	56	45	43
Dishwasher	15	23	24	25	42	36	39	43	53	45	39
Air conditioning	--	--	3	4	13	32	38	25	9	7	20
Pay television*	4	--	7	6	7	13	3	6	11	9	10
Home computer*	10	--	12	10	9	12	9	9	12	10	10
						000s					
Total households	**9,556**	**168**	**43**	**313**	**246**	**2,530**	**3,451**	**405**	**378**	**872**	**1,149**

-- Amount too small to be expressed. * 1986 data.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 64-202.

Some items and services were more typical of city than of rural homes. The proportion of city households with air conditioning (23%) was double that for rural households (11%). And probably reflecting the availability of service, city households were much more likely than those in rural areas to have cable- and pay-TV connections. In 1987, 77% of homes in large urban areas had cable television; the proportion in the country was just 20%. Similarly, while 12% of city households had pay-TV, only 2% of rural households were subscribers.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of selected family households with new necessities, 1987



* 1986 data.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-218.

Wide provincial variations

The provinces varied widely in ownership rates of the new necessities. For example, while 22% of Newfoundland homes had microwave ovens, the proportion was more than two and a half times higher (57%) in Saskatchewan. The percentage of households with VCRs ranged from 35% in Prince Edward Island to 48% in Alberta.

Alberta also had the highest proportion of households with dishwashers (53%); Newfoundland had the lowest (15%). Freezers were most common in Saskatchewan households (77%), but least likely to be found in Quebec homes (45%).

British Columbia stood first for cable-TV connections (84%) and Prince Edward Island ranked last (46%), probably indicating the availability of service in the two provinces. Ontario residents were most likely to be pay-TV subscribers (13%); Manitoba residents, least likely (3%). The highest proportion of homes with more than one television set was in Newfoundland (52%).

The percentage of homes with air-conditioning was less than 5% in the Atlantic provinces, but 38% in Manitoba, not surprising given the climatic differences in the two areas.

Ontario, Alberta, and Nova Scotia shared the lead for home computer ownership: 12% of households in these provinces were outfitted with computers.

Mary Sue Devereaux *is a Managing Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

COMMON-LAW UNIONS
NEARLY HALF A MILLION IN 1986

by Pierre Turcotte

A growing number of Canadians are living together without being married. In the five years between 1981 and 1986, the number of common-law unions increased sharply, while the number of married couples rose by only a small amount. As a result, not only the number but also the proportion of couples who were in common-law partnerships increased.

The characteristics of people in common-law relationships differ from those of people who are married. While common-law partners were older in 1986 than in 1981, they remained a much younger group than married people. Regardless of their age, people in common-law relationships were also less likely than married couples to have children at home.



Sharp increase in common-law unions

According to Census results, 487,000 couples (or 974,000 individuals) were living in common-law partnerships in 1986, a 37% gain over 1981, far outpacing the 2.7% rise in the number of married couples. Consequently, common-law unions accounted for 8% of all couples in 1986, up from 6% in 1981.

Common-law upswing offsets marriage downturn

The percentage of people aged 15 and over who were living in a union, either a common-law partnership or a legal marriage, decreased slightly between 1981 and 1986 from 61.1% to 60.6%. This small decline, however, masked a noticeable drop in the married compo-

nent and an almost compensating rise in the common-law share.

The proportion of people in common-law partnerships rose 1.1 percentage points from 3.9% in 1981 to 5.0% in 1986, nearly offsetting the 1.7 percentage-point decline from 57.3% to 55.6% in the proportion who were married.

Alternative for young couples

At young ages, relatively few people live as couples. In fact, at ages 15-19, less than 3% of the population lived as couples in 1986. By comparison, at ages 30-34, the proportion was 75%.

However, the younger the partners, the more likely is their union to be common-law. In 1986, six out of 10 partners aged 15-19 were in a common-law union. By ages 20-24, just over three out of 10 partners were living common-law, and among 25-29-year-olds, the figure was less than two in 10. At successively older ages, common-law partners represented a small and declining share of all people living in unions. But regardless of the age of the partners, proportionately more unions were common-law in 1986 than five years earlier.

Common-law partners as a percentage of all persons living as couples, by age group, 1981 and 1986

Age group	1981	1986
15-19	49.5	59.6
20-24	23.1	32.9
25-29	11.3	16.6
30-34	6.8	10.3
35-39	5.1	7.4
40-44	3.9	5.9
45-49	3.0	4.5
50-54	2.4	3.5
55-59	1.8	2.6
60-64	1.5	2.1
65 and over	1.0	1.5
Total	**6.4**	**8.3**

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Most common-law partners young adults

People in common-law unions are relatively young. More than half the women and 43% of the men who lived common-law in 1986 were younger than age 30.

But while young adults continued to account for a large proportion of people living common-law, the median age of common-law partners was about two years older in 1986 than in 1981. The median age of men rose from 28.9 to 30.7 years; for women, the increase was from 26.1 to 28.1 years.

Nonetheless, common-law partners remained considerably younger than married people. In 1986, the median age of married men was 43.8 years, while that of married women was 40.8 years.

Cohabitation rates rise

The likelihood that people of various ages will live in a common-law partnership can also be indicated by the cohabitation rate. This rate expresses the number of common-law partners as a proportion of the total population "eligible" to live common-law, that is, people who are single, separated, divorced, or widowed.

Overall, the cohabitation rates of both men and women rose between 1981 and 1986. For men, the rate went from 9.5% to 11.9%, and for women, the increase was from 8.7% to 10.7%.

There was, however, a drop in the rate among 15-19-year-olds. This drop does not mean that more young people were marrying. There was simply a trend in the 15-19 age group away from living in

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Common-law partners, by age group and sex, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

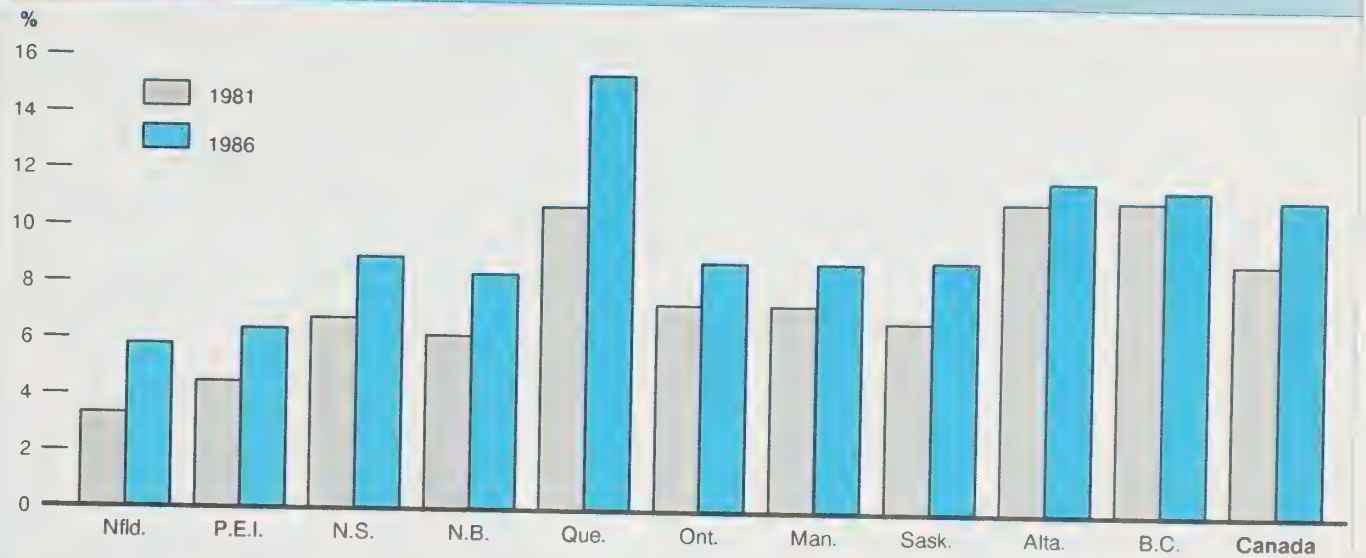
Cohabitation rates, by age group and sex, Canada, 1981 and 1986

Age group	Men		Women	
	1981	1986	1981	1986
15-19	0.7	0.5	3.0	2.4
20-24	9.1	8.5	14.9	15.1
25-29	18.7	20.0	20.8	23.4
30-34	22.5	24.7	19.1	22.9
35-39	22.7	25.1	16.5	19.6
40-44	19.2	23.3	13.4	16.6
45-49	15.5	19.5	10.0	13.3
50-54	11.9	15.8	7.1	9.5
55-59	9.0	11.9	4.5	6.1
60-64	7.0	9.1	2.7	3.8
65 and over	3.0	4.3	0.7	1.1
Total	**9.5**	**11.9**	**8.7**	**10.7**

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Cohabitation rates,[1] Canada and provinces, 1981 and 1986



[1] Cohabitation rates are calculated for each province by dividing the number of common-law partners by the total non-married population
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada





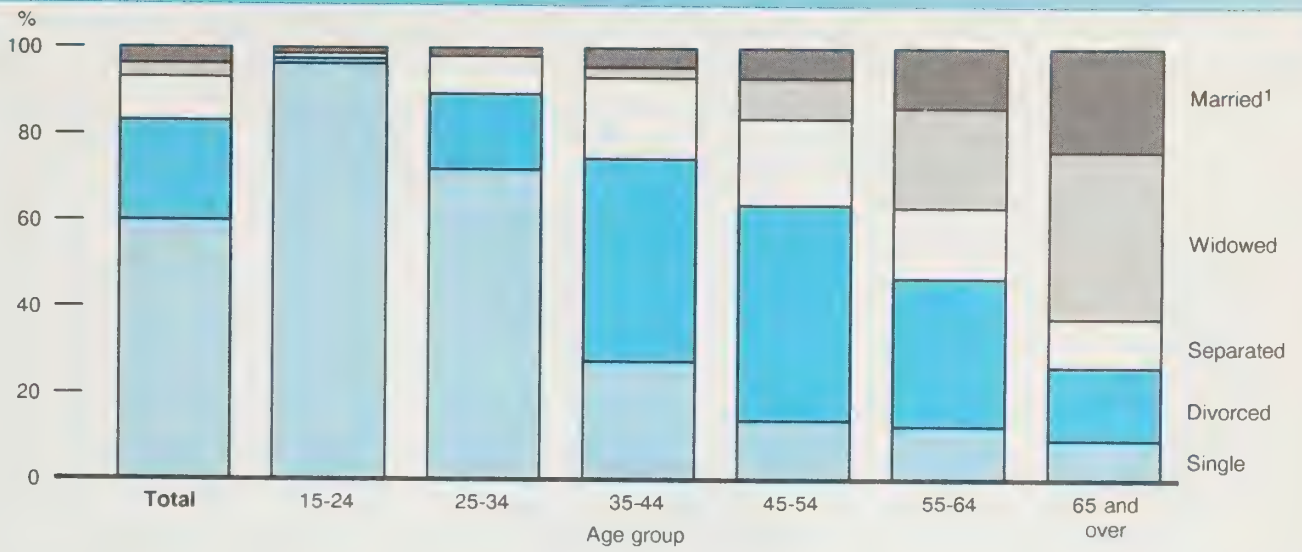
Population aged 15 and over, by nature of marital union, age and sex, Canada, 1981 and 1986

	Common-law		Married		Total population	
	1981	1986	1981	1986	1981	1986
Men						
15-19	8,340	4,655	6,060	2,585	1,150,185	965,280
20-24	83,080	81,630	223,065	133,325	1,137,555	1,095,400
25-29	88,120	122,670	588,505	525,565	1,058,940	1,138,670
30-34	61,160	90,335	730,165	699,385	1,002,510	1,065,220
35-39	38,715	65,005	639,110	737,880	809,375	996,965
40-44	24,230	42,395	537,410	617,685	663,420	799,710
45-49	17,630	26,525	509,025	514,255	622,935	649,960
50-54	13,315	19,210	497,350	484,815	609,385	606,090
55-59	9,080	13,705	455,545	467,525	556,100	582,885
60-64	5,740	9,245	369,300	417,875	450,870	519,410
65 and over	7,200	11,555	698,825	793,495	939,080	1,059,760
Total	**356,605**	**486,940**	**5,254,355**	**5,394,390**	**9,000,350**	**9,479,350**
Women						
15-19	32,450	21,535	35,555	15,155	1,114,660	926,805
20-24	109,625	123,505	416,685	284,620	1,153,110	1,104,015
25-29	77,675	116,085	708,420	670,485	1,082,080	1,165,550
30-34	47,865	76,735	756,430	758,415	1,007,580	1,093,095
35-39	29,325	52,670	622,640	739,240	800,695	1,007,695
40-44	18,715	33,950	516,655	593,330	656,785	797,365
45-49	13,275	21,110	480,915	490,235	613,370	649,455
50-54	10,290	14,430	467,950	453,670	613,480	606,145
55-59	7,450	10,410	435,940	430,590	601,905	601,245
60-64	4,770	7,625	330,055	384,980	506,260	584,535
65 and over	5,170	8,895	483,105	573,685	1,202,310	1,396,940
Total	**356,605**	**486,940**	**5,254,355**	**5,394,390**	**9,352,235**	**9,932,845**

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of common-law partners, by reported marital status and age group, 1986



[1] It is not clear from Census data why some respondents who were living in common-law unions recorded themselves as married.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada

couples, as the proportion staying in their parental home increased. The same pattern was apparent among men aged 20-24. At older ages, cohabitation rates of both sexes rose between 1981 and 1986.

Although the largest number of male common-law partners in 1986 were aged 25-29, male cohabitation rates peaked at 25.1% among 35-39-year-olds. This compares with rates of 20.0% for men aged 25-29, and just 8.5% for those in the 20-24 age group.

Among women, a similar pattern emerged, but their ages were somewhat younger. While the largest number of female common-law partners were aged 20-24, cohabitation rates peaked at 23.4% among 25-29-year-olds. The cohabitation rate for women aged 20-24 was much lower: 15.1%.

Wide provincial variations

Between 1981 and 1986, Quebec's cohabitation rate rose markedly from 10.8% to 15.5%. This was consistent with smaller proportions of people marrying in that province. As a result, in 1986, Quebec had the highest cohabitation rate in Canada. Alberta and British Columbia were also above the national average (11.3%), with 1986 rates of 11.9% and 11.6%, respectively.

By contrast, 1981 cohabitation rates had been highest in British Columbia and Alberta, while Quebec had ranked third. However, the increase in Quebec (4.7 percentage points), combined with gains of less than one percentage point in Alberta and British Columbia, meant a change in the rank order of these three provinces by 1986.

On the other hand, in 1986 as in 1981, Newfoundland (5.9%) and Prince Edward Island (6.4%) had the lowest cohabitation rates. In the other provinces, 1986 rates varied between 8.4% and 9.0%.

Common-law unions not limited to single persons

In 1986, the majority (59%) of common-law partners were single. More than a third (37%) of the people living common-law, however, had been married previously. The remaining 4% identified themselves as "married".

As would be expected, almost all common-law partners aged 15-24 were single; in successively older age groups, the proportion of previously married partners increased.

Common-law couples less likely to have children at home

Regardless of their age, common-law couples are less likely than married couples to have children at home. In 1986, common-law couples had an average of 0.6 children at home, compared with 1.3 for married couples.

But between 1981 and 1986, the proportion of common-law couples with children increased, while the proportion for married couples fell slightly. In 1986, 37.8% of common-law couples had children at home, up from 34.2% in 1981. For married couples, the percentage was 64.8% in 1986, down from 66.2% in 1981.

The number and/or presence of children at home should not be used as a measure of childbearing while in a common-law relationship. For example, these children may well have been born in a previous union.

Four in ten eventually marry

Living common-law does not preclude marriage. In fact, a 1984 survey[1] showed that 46% of men and 43% of women who lived in a common-law union later married their partner. Cohabitation, then, is not always a permanent alternative to marriage; it is frequently a prelude to marriage.+

[1] Statistics Canada, Catalogue 99-955.
+ See Autumn 1986 issue of **Canadian Social Trends** for further information.

Pierre Turcotte *is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

FEMALE LONE PARENTHOOD
THE DURATION OF EPISODES

by Maureen Moore



According to the 1986 Census, a total of 702,000 Canadian women were lone parents. But the Census provided only a snapshot of an ongoing phenomenon: it did not indicate the number of women who have been lone parents at sometime in the past or how long those episodes of parenting alone lasted. Statistics Canada's 1984 Family History Survey overcame this limitation by asking women about their past marital and childbearing experiences. According to this survey, 1.4 million women aged 18 to 65 had been or still were lone parents. These women represented 18% of that age group overall and 26% of those who had had children.

For about two-thirds of these women, parenting alone had ended, either when the women entered a new union or when their children left home. Overall, the survey showed that lone-parent episodes lasted an average of five and a half years, although this estimate may be slightly understated because it includes episodes that were continuing at the time of the survey.

Female lone parents are a diverse population. The age at which parenting alone begins, its duration, the chances of it ending, and the way it ends all vary widely. One factor that affects these variables is the circumstance that led to lone parenthood in the first place; that is, whether the women became lone parents as a result of separation, divorce, widowhood, or having a child outside marriage (including outside a common-law relationship).

The length of lone-parent periods has important social and economic implications. Female lone-parent families tend to

have lower incomes than two-parent families, and therefore, they are likely to require support services and assistance.+ Moreover, the number and proportion of children under age 25 living in lone-parent families is rising. In 1986, 1.16 million Canadian children, or more than 14% of all children in families, were living in lone-parent families. This was up from just under 900,000 children, or about 10% of the total, in 1976. The numbers and proportions of children who have at some time lived in lone-parent families are, of course, much higher.

Routes to lone parenthood

Most women who became lone parents entered this situation when they were separated or divorced. In fact, half (50%) of all the lone-parent women fell in this category. Another third (33%) were unmarried mothers, and the remaining 17% were widowed. Because these events generally occur at different ages, the lone-parent experience, particularly its length, differed for each group.

Unwed mothers — early onset/short duration

The 460,000 women whose lone parenthood was caused by an out-of-wedlock birth tended to be young; they became lone parents at an average age of 20.6 years. They also spent the shortest time as lone parents — just 4.4 years, on average, including ongoing episodes.

By the time the survey was taken, 83% of these women were no longer parenting alone. The average duration of lone parenthood for unwed mothers whose episode had ended was 3.5 years. By contrast, the small proportion (17%) who were still lone parents in 1984 had already spent an average of 8.9 years parenting alone.

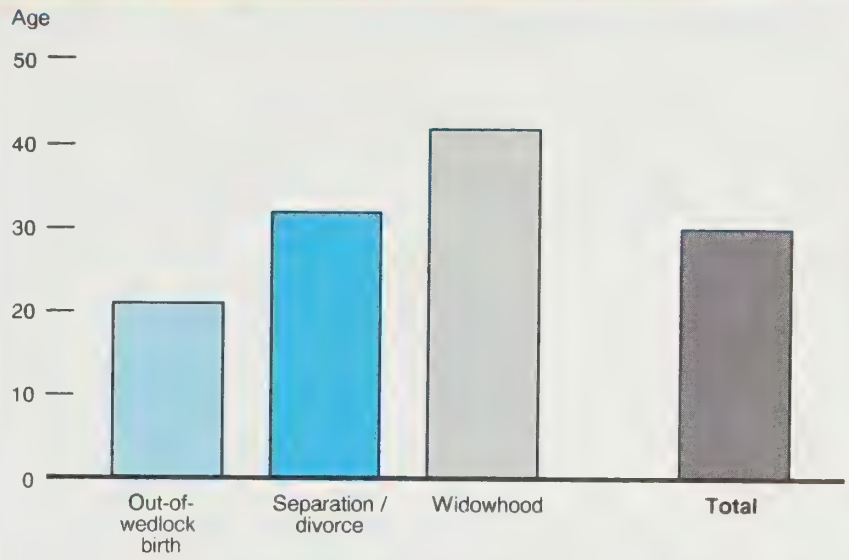
The vast majority (97%) of unwed mothers whose lone-parent episode had ended had entered a new union. Given the early age of onset, chances that their children would leave home were minimal, occurring perhaps only in cases where the children died, were given up for adoption, or were removed by an authority such as a children's aid society.

Separated and divorced mothers

The 697,000 women whose lone parenthood stemmed from separation or divorce were older than unwed mothers when the phase began, and their episode of parenting alone tended to last longer. They began parenting alone at an average age of 31.6 years, and their lone-parent phases averaged 5.6 years.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

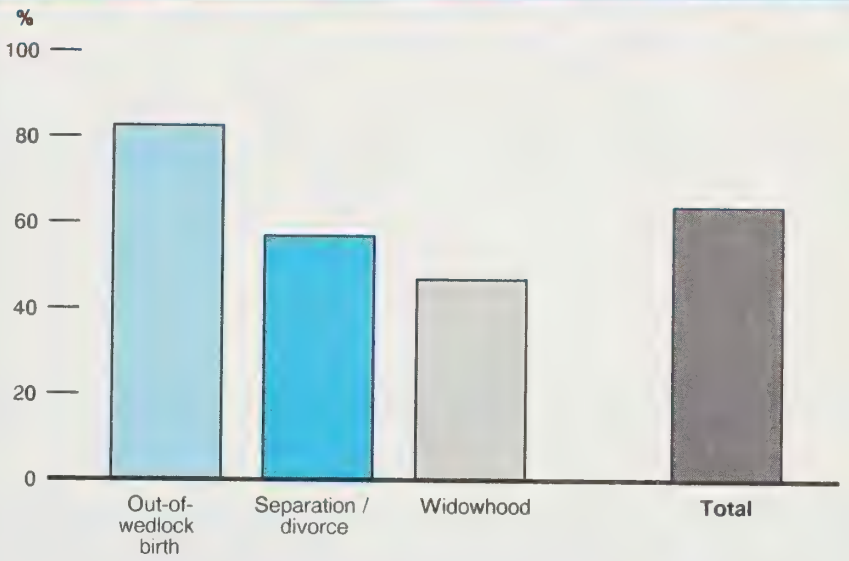
Average age of women at start of first lone-parent episode, by originating event



Source: Statistics Canada, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Family History Survey.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of first lone-parent episodes ended by February 1984, by originating event



Source: Statistics Canada, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Family History Survey.

Compared with the unmarried group, a smaller proportion of separated or divorced women had ended their period of lone parenthood. And because they had started parenting alone at a somewhat older age than unwed mothers, the likelihood that separated or divorced women would change their status through union entry was diminished. By 1984, when the survey was taken, just over half (57%) of them had ceased being lone parents. The average duration of lone parenthood for those whose episode had ended was 5.3 years; about three-quarters (77%) of them had entered a new union.

The 43% of separated or divorced women who were still lone parents at the time of the survey had already spent an average of 6.0 years in that situation.

+ A detailed examination of the characteristics and situation of female-headed lone-parent families is given in "Women Parenting Alone," by M. Moore in Canadian Social Trends, Winter 1987.



Average duration of ended and continuing lone-parent episodes of women aged 18-65, by originating event, 1984

Originating event	Episode ended		Episode continuing		Total	
	Average duration (years)	Number of women (000s)	Average duration (years)	Number of women (000s)	Average duration (years)	Number of women (000s)
Out-of-wedlock birth	3.5	384	8.9	77	4.4	460
Separation/ divorce	5.3	394	6.0	303	5.6	697
Widowhood	6.2	113	8.8	127	7.5	239
Total	**4.6**	**890**	**7.1**	**506**	**5.5**	**1,396**

Source: Statistics Canada, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Family History Survey.

Summary statistics for lone-parent episodes of women aged 18-65, by originating event, 1984

	Out-of-wedlock birth	Separation/ divorce	Widowhood	Total
Number (000s)	460	697	239	1,396
Average age at onset (years)	20.6	31.6	41.8	29.7
Average duration[1] (years)	4.4	5.6	7.5	5.5
Percent of episodes ended at survey date (%)	83	57	47	64
Percent of ended episodes due to formation of new union (%)	97	77	59	84

[1] Includes episodes continuing at survey date.
Source: Statistics Canada, Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Family History Survey.

Men and children

Parenting alone is largely, but not exclusively, a female experience. According to the Census, the number of male lone parents in Canada increased from 94,990 in 1976 to 151,740 in 1986. Nonetheless, as a proportion of all lone parents, their share remained stable at about 17%.

Longest duration among widows

Not surprsingly, the 239,000 women who became lone parents as a result of widowhood were the oldest group. These women were 41.8 years of age, on average, when their spouse died. As well, their episodes of parenting alone lasted longer than those of unwed mothers and separated or divorced women. The average duration of widows' lone-parent periods was 7.5 years. Widows whose episodes had ended averaged 6.2 years parenting alone, while those who were still lone parents in 1984 had already spent 8.8 years in that situation. Widows were also less likely than the other groups to have ended their lone-parent phase, particularly by entering a new partnership. Fewer than half (47%) of them had ceased being lone parents by 1984. Of those widows whose lone-parent episodes had ended, just 59% were in a new union; the other 41% stopped being lone parents when their children left home.

A second episode

While most female lone parents had only a single episode of parenting alone, 12% had experienced at least two. A second phase was most common among unwed mothers. Almost three in ten (28%) women who became lone parents by having a child when they were single went on to a second lone-parent period. By contrast, only about 4% of the separated, divorced, or widowed women had a second episode of parenting alone.

The Family History Survey

The Family History Survey was conducted by Statistics Canada in February 1984. Roughly 7,000 men and 7,000 women aged 18 to 65 were asked to report the dates of marriages, common-law unions, births, adoptions, children's home-leaving, separations, divorces, and deaths of spouses.

Maureen Moore *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,625.1[p]
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.1[p]
Immigration[1]	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	123,076[p]
Emigration[1]	51,060	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	41,090[p]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918	870
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311	11,634	11,955
- goods sector (000s)	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348	3,417	3,489
- services sector (000s)	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963	8,217	8,465
Total unemployment (000s)	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328	1,236	1,167
Unemployment rate	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.6	8.9
Part-time employment (%)	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.6	15.2
Women's participation rate	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3	55.1	56.2
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1986 $	37,855	36,923	35,420	34,862	34,828	35,455	36,042	*
% of families with low income	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	13.3	12.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	-	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	64.9	66.0	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,106.3	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	643.4	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	804.2[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,383
Government expenditure on education (1987 $000,000)	28,095.8	28,808.6	28,950.0	29,475.2	28,980.6	31,112.5	29,675.3	30,227.9
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	*
- women	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	-	36.7	-	34.0	-	33.1	30.8	*
- women	-	28.9	-	28.3	-	27.8	25.8	*
Government expenditure on health (1987 $000,000)	24,416.9	25,982.5	27,046.9	28,501.8	28,488.5	30,599.6	31,035.1	32,858.1
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	648	666	685	692	714	749	808	853[p]
- property	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,700[p]
- homicide	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1987 $000,000)	118,984.6	121,628.9	130,173.0	136,395.7	138,037.3	144,847.0	145,563.9	147,237.4
- as a % of total expenditures	57.5	57.0	58.0	59.4	58.0	58.9	59.3	60.0
- as a % of GDP	24.7	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.8	27.5	26.7
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,902.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	+1.5	+3.7	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.6	+3.2	+4.0
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4
Urban housing starts	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340

- Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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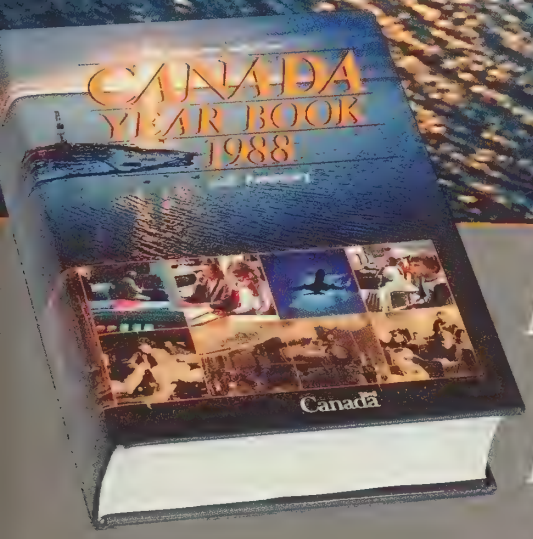
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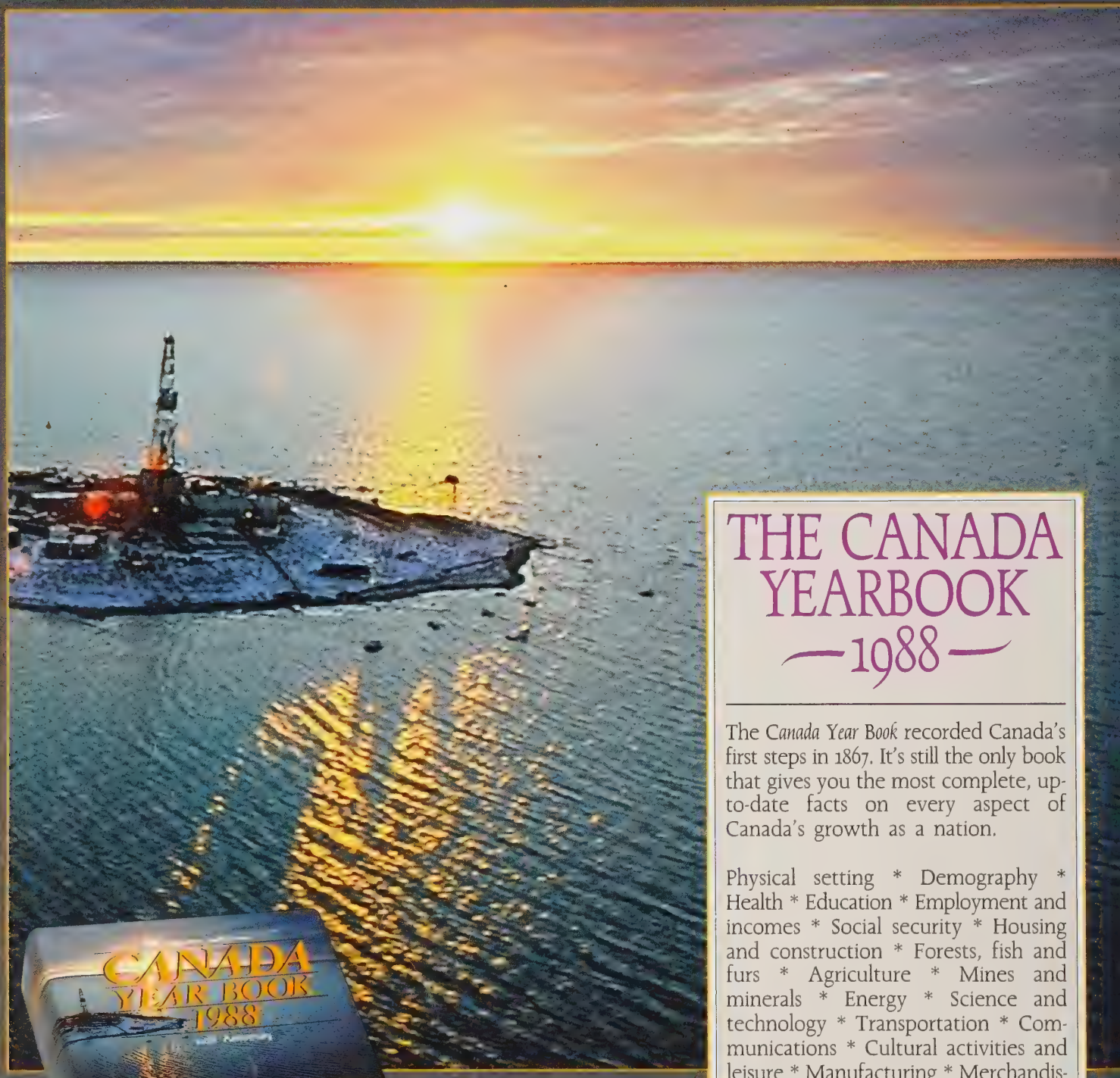


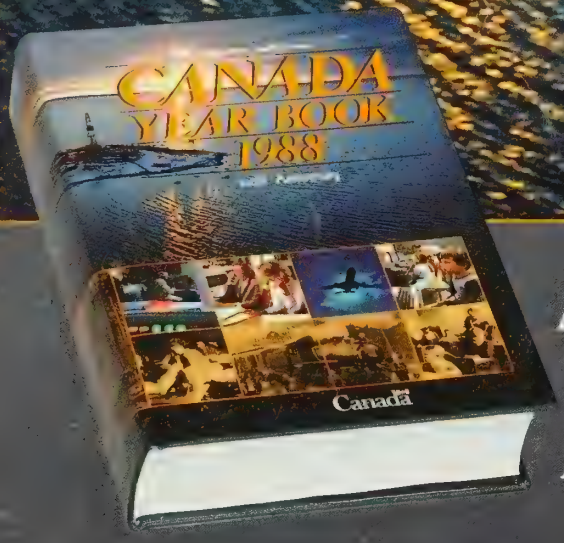
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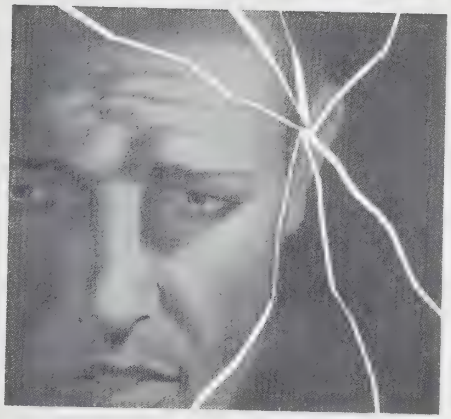
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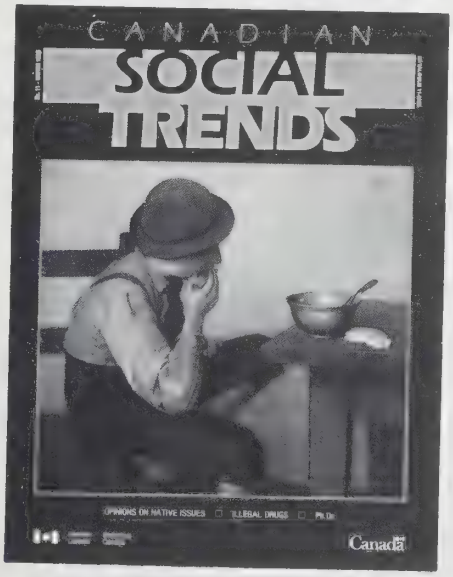
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About the artist:

Born at St. Hilaire, Quebec, **Ozias Leduc** (1864-1955) acquired much of his artistic training through observation and self-teaching. In his early twenties, he painted beautiful still life studies bathed in warm candle light or light from a distant window. Later in his career, his work was influenced by French impressionists but translated into his own unique style. O. Leduc is well known for his religious murals and paintings.

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A SELECT FEW: CANADA'S PH.D. POPULATION

by Brian Burke

A doctorate is the highest achievement in educational attainment. As such, earning a Ph.D. requires great determination and dedication on the part of recipients. For example, Ph.D. graduates spend close to 22 years in school, up to ten of them at the postsecondary level. There are significant advantages, though, in having a doctorate. The average income of Ph.D.-holders is considerably greater than that of other major educational groups; as well, unemployment is very low among those with a Ph.D.

Figures from the latest Census show that while very few people in Canada have an earned doctorate, their numbers have risen faster than the rest of the population in recent years. As well, roughly half of those with a Ph.D. in Canada are immigrants; however, the flow of immigrant Ph.Ds into Canada has slowed in the last decade.

The number of Ph.D.-holders growing

The last decade has seen a relatively large increase in the number of people in Canada with an earned doctorate. Between 1976 and 1986, the ranks of Ph.D.-holders rose 48% from 45,200 to 67,000. In the same period, the population aged 15 and over rose only 17%.

People with a Ph.D., however, make up only a small fraction of all adults living in Canada. In 1986, just 0.3% of the popula-



tion aged 15 and over had an earned doctorate. This was slightly below the proportion in the United States, where 0.4% of those aged 15 and over had an earned doctorate in 1984.

Most Ph.D.-holders are men. In fact, in 1986, 83% of those with an earned doctorate were male. Women's representation among Ph.Ds, however, has increased, rising from 12% in 1976 to 17% in 1986.

One result of the increase in the share of women with a Ph.D. in recent years is that the female Ph.D. population is younger than that of men. For example, in 1986, almost 38% of all women with an earned doctorate were under age 40 compared with 27% of male Ph.Ds.

The majority of Ph.D.-holders in Canada are immigrants.[1] In fact, in 1986, just over half (51%) of all those with a Ph.D. were born outside the country.

The flow of immigrant Ph.Ds into Canada, however, slowed in the last decade. Of the 34,000 immigrant Ph.Ds in Canada in 1986, almost 14,000, or 40%, arrived between 1967 and 1976. In comparison, just 6,500, less than 20% of the total, came in the 1977-1986[2] period.

Country of origin of immigrant Ph.Ds

Immigrant Ph.Ds are most likely to have come from either the United States or the United Kingdom. As of 1986, 40% of immigrants with an earned doctorate were born in one of these two countries, 30% originated in European countries other than the United Kingdom, 19% were from Asia, and 11% were from other countries.

There have been shifts, however, in the country of origin of immigrant Ph.Ds in the last decade. The proportion born in either the United States or the United Kingdom has dropped, while the share from Asia has risen.

There was a particularly sharp decline in the proportion of immigrant Ph.Ds from the United Kingdom. People born in the United Kingdom made up over 20% of all immigrant Ph.Ds who arrived in Canada before 1977, but only 14% of those who came between 1977 and 1986. The proportion of immigrant Ph.Ds from the United States also declined, but only from 20% of those who arrived before 1977 to 18% of those who came in the last decade.

In contrast, the proportion of immigrant Ph.Ds born in Asia rose from 18% of those who came to Canada before 1977 to 26% of those who arrived in the 1977-1986 period. Much of this upturn reflects an increase in the share of immigrant Ph.Ds from the Middle East.[3] People born in this region made up 9% of all immigrant Ph.Ds who came to Canada between 1977 and 1986, compared with only 2% of those who arrived before 1977.

Many fields of study

Canada's Ph.D.-holders earned their doctorates in a wide variety of disciplines. In 1986, 21% of them had specialized in mathematics/physical sciences and 20% had a degree in the social sciences. Humanities accounted for another 16% of all Ph.Ds, while 13% were in agriculture/biological sciences, 10% were in each of health sciences and engineering/applied sciences, and 7% were in education. There are differences, though, in the fields of specialization of male and female Ph.D.-holders. Almost one in four male Ph.Ds obtained their doctorate in mathematics/physical sciences (23%) and another 11% had a degree in engineering/applied sciences. In comparison, only 9% of women with a Ph.D. were in mathematics/physical sciences and just 2% were in engineering/applied sciences.

On the other hand, women were more likely than men to have specialized in the social sciences, humanities, and education. Almost 60% of women, compared with 40% of men, received their Ph.D. in one of these fields.

There are also differences in the fields of study of immigrant and non-immigrant Ph.Ds. In 1986, immigrants made up 65% of those with a Ph.D. in engineering/applied sciences and 56% of those in mathematics/physical sciences. Immigrants also made up just under half of Ph.D.-holders in the social sciences, humanities, health sciences, and agriculture/biological sciences. On the other hand, they made up only 33% of those with a Ph.D. in education.

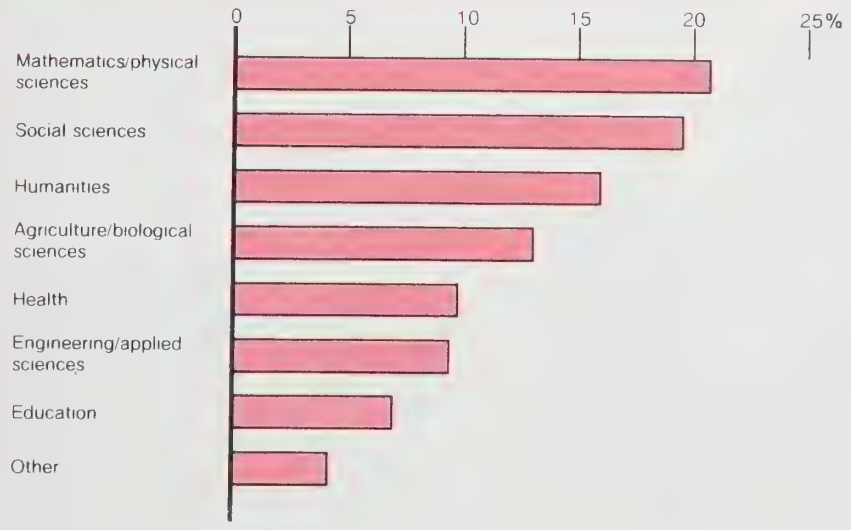
The fields of study of immigrant Ph.Ds vary depending on their country of origin. For example, those born in the United States or the United Kingdom made up close to half of immigrant Ph.Ds in the humanities, education, social sciences, and agriculture/biological sciences. On the other hand, people from these countries represented considerably smaller proportions of Ph.D.-holders in mathematics/physical sciences, health sciences, and especially engineering/applied sciences. People from Asia make up the largest group of immigrant Ph.Ds in engineering/applied sciences. In fact, close to a quarter of all those with a Ph.D. in these fields were born in Asia.

High earnings, low unemployment

Doctoral degree-holders enjoy clear benefits in terms of employment and earnings. For example, their average employment income is well above that of other major educational groups[4]; as well, they have the lowest unemployment rate.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Field of study of people with a Ph.D., 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

[1] Immigrant Ph.Ds include those who had a doctorate when they immigrated to Canada, as well as those who earned their degree after they arrived.
[2] Includes only the first five months of 1986.
[3] Includes Turkey and Afghanistan.
[4] Does not include those with medical degrees.

Number of doctoral graduates rising

The number of earned doctorates granted by Canadian universities has risen in recent years from 1,715 in 1982 to almost 2,400 in 1987, the highest annual total ever recorded. This steady increase is a change from the previous decade when the annual number of Ph.Ds awarded fluctuated between 1,700 and 1,900.

The largest proportions of 1987 doctoral graduates earned degrees in the social sciences or mathematics/physical sciences. Both of these fields accounted for roughly 20% of all Ph.Ds awarded in 1987. Graduates in each of agriculture/biological sciences, engineering/applied sciences, and the humanities made up between 12% and 14% of 1987 Ph.D. recipients. Another 10% were in education, the same proportion as in health sciences.

Although women remain a minority among doctoral graduates, their numbers have increased much more rapidly than those for men since the early 1970s. Between 1971 and 1987, the number of women earning a Ph.D. rose 350% compared with a 15% increase for men. Much of this difference can be traced to the period from 1973 to 1982 when the number of women earning a doctorate increased while the number of male graduates declined substantially.

The relatively rapid growth in the number of women earning a doctorate has continued in recent years. In the 1982-1987 period, the number of female Ph.D. graduates rose 60%, almost double the 32% increase for men.

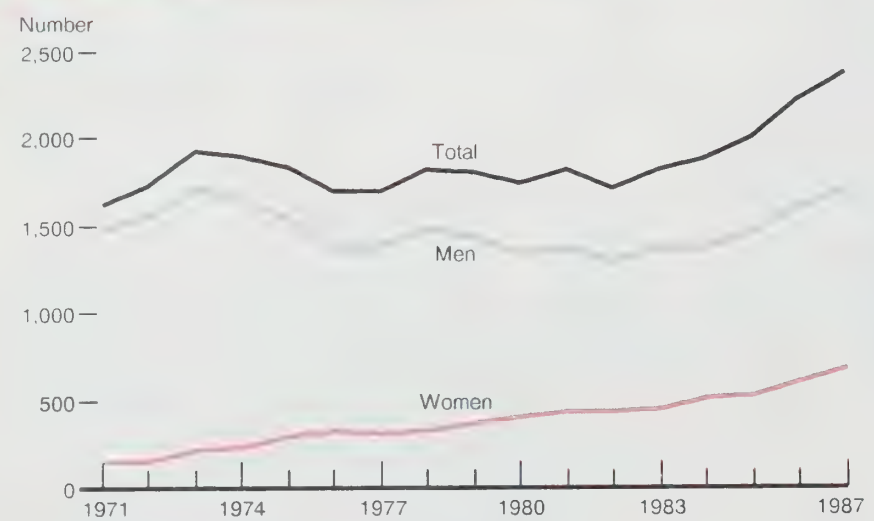
As a result of these trends, women made up 29% of all Ph.D. graduates in 1987, up from 9% in 1971. Female Ph.D. recipients, though, remained a minority in all fields of study, except education, where they slightly outnumbered men.

According to Statistics Canada's annual survey of doctoral graduates, 24% of those who received a Ph.D. in 1986 were temporary residents of Canada. The proportion of temporary residents ranged from 43% in engineering/applied sciences to 15% in humanities.

Of 1986 graduates who were temporary residents, 75% indicated that they intended to leave Canada. The main reason given was visa restrictions. At the same time, 19% of Ph.D. graduates who were either Canadian citizens or permanent residents also indicated they intended to leave the country. The lack of postdoctoral fellowships in Canada and better academic and employment positions elsewhere were the most frequently cited reasons why these graduates planned to leave.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Ph.Ds granted, by sex, 1971-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 81-204 and 81-211, and Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

The average employment income of men with a Ph.D. employed full-time throughout 1985 was $52,000; this compared with $46,700 for master's degree-holders and $40,800 for those with a bachelor's degree. The comparable average employment income of all men aged 15 and over was $30,500.

Much the same pattern occurs among women, although their average employment earnings are considerably below those of men in all education categories, including Ph.D.-holders. Female Ph.D.-holders working full-time throughout 1985 averaged $39,900 in employment income compared with $34,800 for women with a master's degree and $28,400 for women with a bachelor's degree. The average employment income for all women aged 15 and over working full-time was $20,000.

There are also significant differences between the unemployment rates of people with a Ph.D. and those with lower academic qualifications. In 1986, the unemployment rate for Ph.D.-holders was just 2.6%. This compared with 4.7% for people with a master's degree and 6.1% for bachelor's degree-holders. For the labour force as a whole, the unemployment rate was 10.3%.

University teaching most common profession for Ph.D.-holders

A large proportion of people with a Ph.D. are university teachers. In 1986, 34% of those with an earned doctorate were teaching at the university level. In addition, 2% were university administrators and 6% had teaching or administrative positions in non-university educational institutions.

At the same time, 16% of Ph.D.-holders were in occupations related to mathematics, engineering, or science, 11% had management or administration positions outside education, and 6% worked in medicine or health professions.

The likelihood of Ph.D.-holders being employed as university teachers varies somewhat depending on their field of study. Those with a degree in the humanities, social sciences, or education are the most likely to be university teachers, while graduates in mathematics, science, and engineering are the most likely to be in scientific occupations.

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ILLEGAL DRUG USE IN CANADA

by Holly Johnson

The level of illegal drug activity known to police has risen substantially in Canada since the early 1960s. Most of this increase, however, occurred during the 1960s and 1970s; in fact, the overall level of drug crime in 1987 was actually below the level in 1980. The one drug for which there has been a substantial increase in the number of offences in recent years, though, is cocaine.



Trends in drug offences

There were major increases in the incidence of drug offences in Canada throughout the 1960s and 1970s. The number of drug crimes recorded by the police rose from just 5 per 100,000 population in 1962 to over 309 in 1980.

In contrast, the incidence of drug crime known to the police declined in the 1980s. Between 1980 and 1986, the number of drug offences per 100,000 population fell 29% from 309 to 220. This downward trend was followed by a 10% increase in 1987, when the drug crime rate rose to 241. This figure, though, was still 22% below the rate in 1980.

Drug offences make up only a small proportion of criminal activity known to police in Canada. The 62,000 drug offences recorded by the police in 1987 represented less than 2% of all recorded offences that year. As well, this figure was down slightly from 1980, when drug offences made up 3% of all offences.

Cannabis offences falling, cocaine rising

Cannabis offences make up the vast majority of all illegal drug activity known to police. There has, however, been a marked decline in the incidence of these offences in the 1980s. Between 1980 and 1987, the number of cannabis offences declined 34% from 65,000 to 43,000. Still, offences involving cannabis made up 70% of all drug offences in 1987, although this was down from 87% in 1980 and 90% in 1976.

The incidence of cocaine offences, on the other hand, has increased dramatically in recent years. The number of cocaine offences known to police rose almost 400% between 1980 and 1987, from 1,700 to 8,200. This includes a 22%

increase in 1987 alone. As a result of this growth, cocaine offences made up 13% of all drug offences in 1987, compared with 2% in 1980.

Only a small proportion of drug offences, just 1% in 1987, involve heroin. The incidence of these cases has remained stable at around 3 per 100,000 population since 1980.

The remaining drug offences involve other narcotics such as codeine, morphine, and methadone, as well as controlled and restricted drugs.[1] Overall, the incidence of other narcotic offences has increased in recent years while the rate for controlled and restricted drugs has fallen.

Between 1980 and 1987, the number of other narcotic offences rose 183% and their share of all drug offences climbed from 3% to 10%. In the same period, police recorded 32% fewer controlled or restricted drug offences. As a result, the share of all drug crime accounted for by these offences fell from 6% to 5%.

There has also been a decline in the amount of drugs either lost in transit or stolen. The Bureau of Dangerous Drugs at Health and Welfare Canada reported that 3,200 quantities of drugs were either lost in transit or stolen in 1985; this compared with 5,400 such incidents in 1981. Three-quarters of all these losses were from pharmacies, while the remainder were from hospitals, licensed dealers, such as pharmaceutic companies and manufacturers, and medical practitioners.

Most drug offences for possession

The majority of drug offences in Canada are for possession, although a significant proportion involve the more serious charge of trafficking.[2] In 1987, 67% of all drug offences were for possession, while 30% were for trafficking. The remaining drug offences involved either cultivation or importing.

The type of offence, though, varies depending on the drug. For example, most cannabis offences are for possession, while the largest proportions of cocaine and heroin offences involve trafficking.

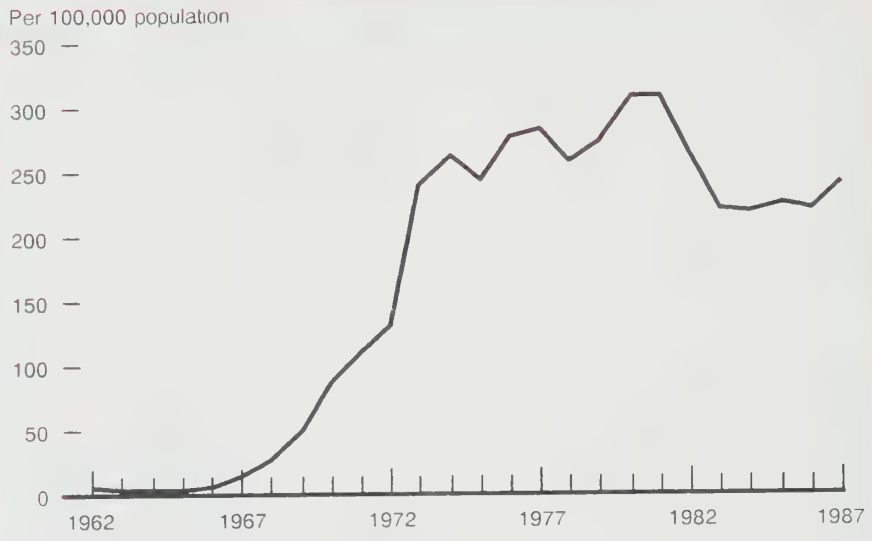
In 1987, 72% of all cannabis offences were for possession, 25% were for trafficking, and the remainder were for

[1] Controlled drugs include speed, amphetamines, and barbituates; they are available through prescription but are illegal to sell. Restricted drugs include LSD, MDA, and psilocybin and are illegal both to possess and sell.

[2] Includes possession for the purpose of trafficking.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

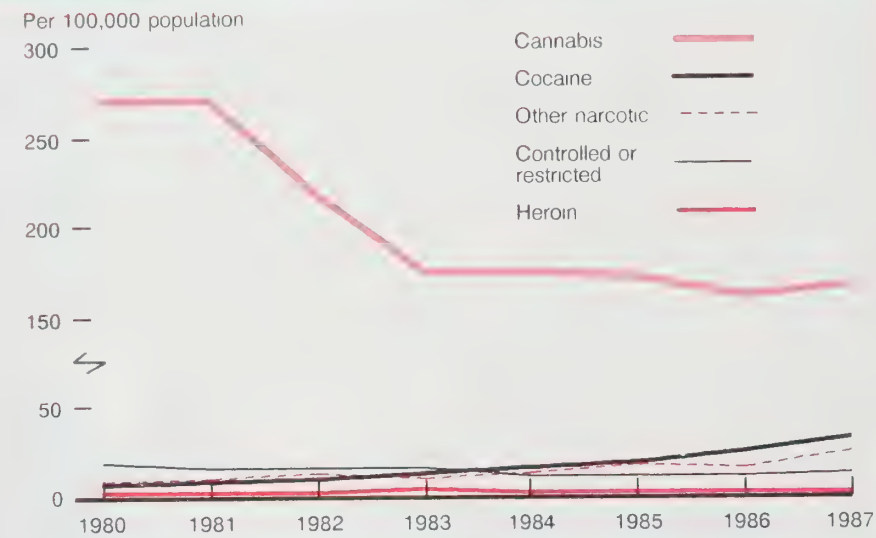
Drug offence rate, 1962-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Drug offence rate, by type of drug, 1980-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205

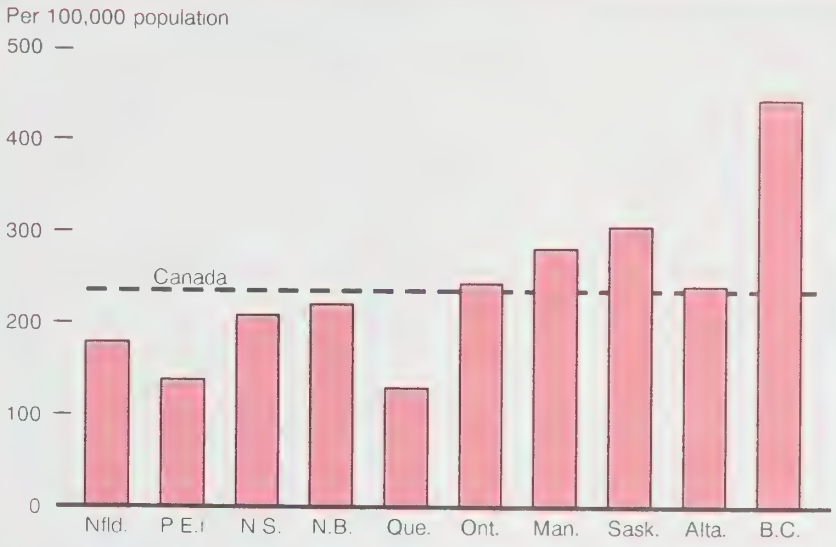
Drug usage declining

There is some evidence, in addition to police statistics, which indicates that overall drug usage has declined in the 1980s. According to the Ontario Addiction Research Foundation, the percentage of Ontario high school students using cannabis fell sharply from 32% in 1979 to 16% in 1987. The proportion using stimulants such as speed also declined from 12% in 1981 to 8% in 1987. At the same time, use of these drugs by adults remained constant.

The proportion of Ontario adults who have ever used cocaine, however, doubled in recent years from 3% in 1984 to 6% in 1987. In the same period, the proportion of students who have ever used cocaine remained stable at about 4%, although regular use of cocaine was higher among students than adults.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

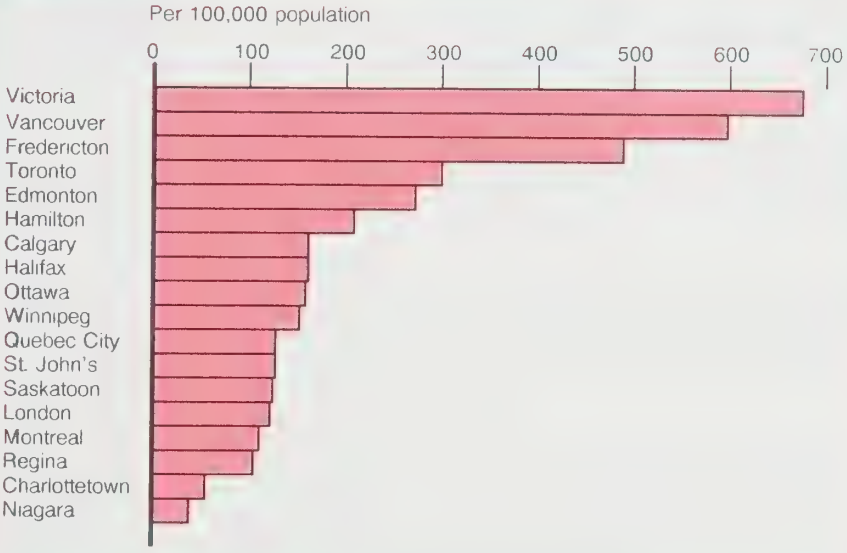
Drug offence rate, by province, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Drug offence rate, by major urban areas, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-205

cultivation and importing. In comparison, around half of all cocaine (51%) and heroin (47%) offences were for trafficking, while only 45% of cocaine and 40% of heroin offences were for possession. In addition, 12% of heroin offences and 4% of those involving cocaine were for importing.

Drug offence rates highest in the west

Levels of illegal drug activity known to police are generally higher in the western provinces than in central or eastern Canada. In 1987, there were 447 drug offences for every 100,000 people in British Columbia, 307 in Saskatchewan, 284 in Manitoba, and 244 in Alberta. In comparison, drug offence rates in the other provinces ranged from a low of 132 per 100,000 population in Quebec to a high of 247 in Ontario.

The incidence of drug offences fell in most provinces in the 1980-1987 period. There were particularly large declines, between 55% and 60%, in the drug offence rates in Alberta, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island. At the same time, there were much smaller declines in Ontario, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Saskatchewan, while rates actually rose 9% in Quebec, 8% in Manitoba, and 6% in British Columbia.

Urban drug offence rates

The east-west pattern in the incidence of drug crime also holds for major metropolitan areas, although there are some exceptions. Victoria, with 676 offences per 100,000 population, and Vancouver, with 598, had the highest rates of illegal drug activity of any cities in Canada in 1987. The next highest rates, though, occurred in Fredericton (491) and Toronto (301).

Statistics on drug crime

Some caution must be used in interpreting trends in official drug crime statistics. Drug offences usually involve consenting parties and so are less likely than other types of crime to be reported to the police. Consequently, drug offences that come to the attention of police are, for the most part, those that they detect on their own. Because of this, variations in the number of drug offences recorded by the police in different jurisdictions, as well as changes in drug rates over time, may reflect changing priorities of police departments as they relate to the detection of these and other offences.

In addition, official drug crime statistics as measured by the Uniform Crime Reporting Survey do not represent a full count of the actual number of offences. As stated above, many such crimes are either not detected or not reported to police. As well, only the most serious offence is counted in incidents involving several violations of the law. For example, drug offences which occur in conjunction with more serious violent or property crimes will not be counted. In addition, when more than one drug offence occurs in the same incident, for example, trafficking in one drug and possession of another, only the most serious, in this case trafficking, will be recorded. Lastly, when one type of offence is committed more than once at the same time, for example, selling drugs to a number of different people, it is counted as only one incident.

On the other hand, the lowest urban drug crime rates in 1987 were reported in Niagara (41) and Charlottetown (57). The next lowest rate, though, occurred in Regina (106), which had a rate just below that in Montreal (112).

Generally, the larger the urban area, the higher the drug offence rate. In 1987, cities with more than 250,000 people had an average of 249 drug offences per 100,000 population; this compared with rates of 211 in cities between 50,000 and 250,000 people, 192 in cities between 10,000 and 50,000 people, and 203 in communities with less than 10,000 residents.

Dealing with drug offenders

Not surprisingly, given the overall decline in illegal drug activity known to police in the 1980s, the number of charges and convictions for drug offences also declined.

Between 1980 and 1987, the number of people charged with drug offences fell 30%, from a total of 62,000 to 43,000. Compared with other types of crime, though, a large proportion of drug offences result in charges. In 1987, charges were laid in three-quarters of all drug offence cases, whereas only about 45% of violent offences and around 20% of all other Criminal Code offences resulted in charges.

There has also been a significant decline in the number of convictions for drug offences.[3] In 1985, there were a total of 28,000 drug convictions, 43% less than in 1981.

The majority of drug convictions result in fines. In 1985, 58% of guilty charges for these offences resulted in fines. Another 23% resulted in jail sentences, while 19% either resulted in probation or were discharged.

The likelihood of being sent to jail varies for different drugs. In 1985, three-quarters of heroin convictions resulted in incarceration, as did 42% of those involving cocaine, 40% of those for controlled or restricted drugs, and 30% of those for other narcotics. On the other hand, just 20% of convictions for cannabis offences resulted in jail terms. Most cannabis convictions, about 60%, resulted in fines.

Overall, about 6% of all inmates in federal penitentiaries in 1987 were incarcerated for drug offences. At the same time, roughly 4% of all admissions to provincial jails involved these offences.

The costs of drug abuse

The social and economic dimensions of drug abuse extend beyond the criminal justice system. The costs of drug abuse include lost productivity, accidental injuries and death, disruption to families and communities, and public expenditure needed to maintain health care and social systems.

In 1983, there were over 72,000 admissions to residential facilities in Canada for treatment of alcohol and drug problems. The same year, over 5,000 hospitalizations in psychiatric and general hospitals were for drug psychoses, drug dependence, or nondependent drug abuse. As well, these figures do not include the majority of drug abusers who receive treatment through outpatient services or who cause physical harm to themselves or others as a consequence of drug impairment.

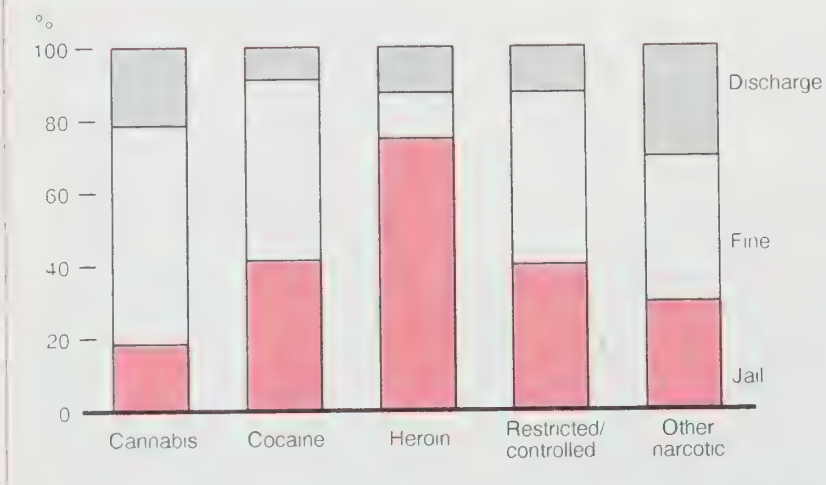
Drug charges in Canada and the United States

Levels of illegal drug activity are much higher in the United States than in Canada. As well, while rates have fallen in Canada in the 1980s, they have risen sharply in the United States.

In 1987, there were 385 drug crime arrests for every 100,000 people in the United States. This was more than double the comparable Canadian figure of 169 people charged with drug offences for every 100,000 people in this country. As well, while the American figure rose 49% between 1980 and 1987, the Canadian rate declined 34%.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Disposition of persons convicted of drug offences, 1985



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Bureau of Dangerous Drugs, *Narcotic, Controlled and Restricted Drug Statistics, 1985.*

[3] Court statistics on convictions from the Bureau of Dangerous Drugs cannot be linked directly to police statistics on the number of offences. Court statistics measure the number of charges coming before the court, while police statistics count incidents which may involve more than one offence and result in more than one charge. In addition, offences known to the police may not result in a court appearance until the following calendar year.

Holly Johnson *is a senior analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.*

PUBLIC OPINION ON ABORIGINAL PEOPLES' ISSUES IN CANADA

by J. Rick Ponting

SPECIAL CONTRIBUTION



J. Rick Ponting is a Professor of Sociology at the University of Calgary. He is editor of *Arduous Journey* (McClelland and Stewart, 1986) and co-author of *Out of Irrelevance* (Butterworth, 1980), two books on Indians. The material in this article was originally presented as part of a Statistics Canada Lecture Series in 1987.

The Native Indian, Inuit, and Metis population has grown rapidly in recent decades to a position of increasing social, demographic, and constitutional prominence in Canadian society. In light of that growing stature, the attitudes of the larger non-Native society to Natives and contemporary Native issues are of general consequence. Those attitudes were the subject of a comprehensive survey undertaken for the University of Calgary by Decima Research Ltd. in 1986.

The survey results show that Canadians generally hold supportive attitudes toward Natives, although that support varies considerably from region to region and has eroded slightly since the mid-1970s.[1] Support drops significantly when Canadians perceive that special "privilege" is being conferred on Natives, with the exception of issues pertaining to land. Canadians seem to recognize Natives' special relationship with the land and up to a point, are willing to make accommodation for that.

While there is widespread support for the general notion of increased self-determination for Natives, levels of knowledge and awareness of aboriginal issues were found to be generally low.

Knowledge about Natives

From an estimated 225,000 Native persons living in what is now Canada just prior to the arrival of Europeans, the Native population declined to approximately half that number by the time of Confederation. However, by 1986, the Canadian Census found that the population reporting at least some Native origins had reached approximately three-quarters of a million or about 3% of the total population of Canada.

Despite the large number of people of Native origins, Canadians are not knowledgeable about the demographics of the Native population. For instance, in the 1986 survey, over one-third (37%), as compared to 46% in our similar survey in 1976, would not hazard a guess when asked what proportion of the total Canadian population is Native. An even greater proportion (41%) significantly overestimated the size of the Native population in that they perceived it to be in excess of 8% of the total Canada population.

Using this and several other questions which tapped knowledge about certain rudimentary aspects of Native affairs, an Index of Knowledge about Native Affairs was constructed on which scores could range from a low of 3 to a high of 7.[2]

The national average score was low at 4.36. Most of the population congregated near the low end of the knowledge continuum both in the 1986 survey and on a comparable index in the 1976 study. In

[1] See Roger Gibbins, "The 1976 National Survey," in J.R. Ponting and R. Gibbins, *Out of Irrelevance: A Socio-Political Introduction to Indian Affairs in Canada*, Scarborough, Ontario: Butterworth, 1980, pp. 71-93.

[2] Other questions used in the Index of Knowledge about Native Affairs included those dealing with knowledge of the existence of the Indian Act, the difference between Status and non-Status Indians, and two other demographic measures — the percentage of the respondent's province which is Native and the percentage of Indians living on reserves.

both years, residents of Quebec exhibited particularly low levels of knowledge and westerners exhibited comparatively high levels of knowledge.

As in 1976, a majority was unaware of the difference between Status and non-Status Indians, although the size of that majority declined over the decade. These and other data indicate some small increase in Canadian levels of knowledge over the ten-year period.

An important area of knowledge measured was a respondent's understanding of the term "aboriginal people". Without prompting, only a tiny fraction of interviewees correctly identified this term as encompassing the Indian, Inuit, and Metis peoples.

Without assistance from the interviewer, almost a third of Canadians failed to indicate even an approximate understanding of the term. Significantly, even when explicitly asked, "Would you include the Metis people [as aboriginal people]?", only a slight majority said "yes." Even when explicitly asked, about one in five Canadian adults does not consider Indians and Inuits to be aboriginal people.

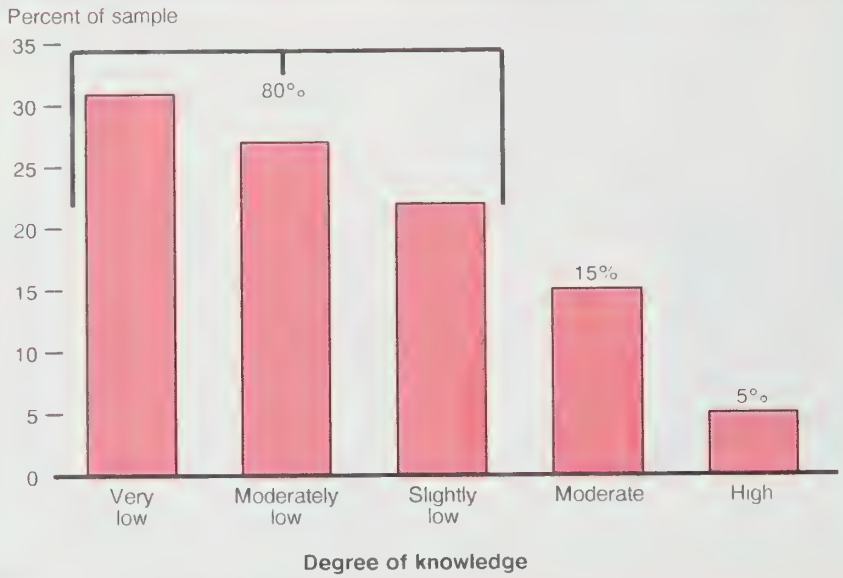
Familiarity with Native affairs

An Index of Familiarity with Native Events/Phenomena was also developed in both the 1976 and 1986 studies. The 1986 Familiarity Index was based on answers to a question in which respondents were given a list of seven events, organizations, or phenomena and were asked to indicate, on a three-point scale, how familiar they are with each one.[3] The national average score of 1.62 in 1986 was well below the mid-point (2.0) of the scale.

On all but two of the items a majority of respondents said they were "not at all familiar." Thus, a majority was unaware of such things as one of the most modern "treaties" (the James Bay and Northern Quebec Agreement of 1975), the existence of aboriginal rights in the constitution[4], and the Lyell Island controversy between

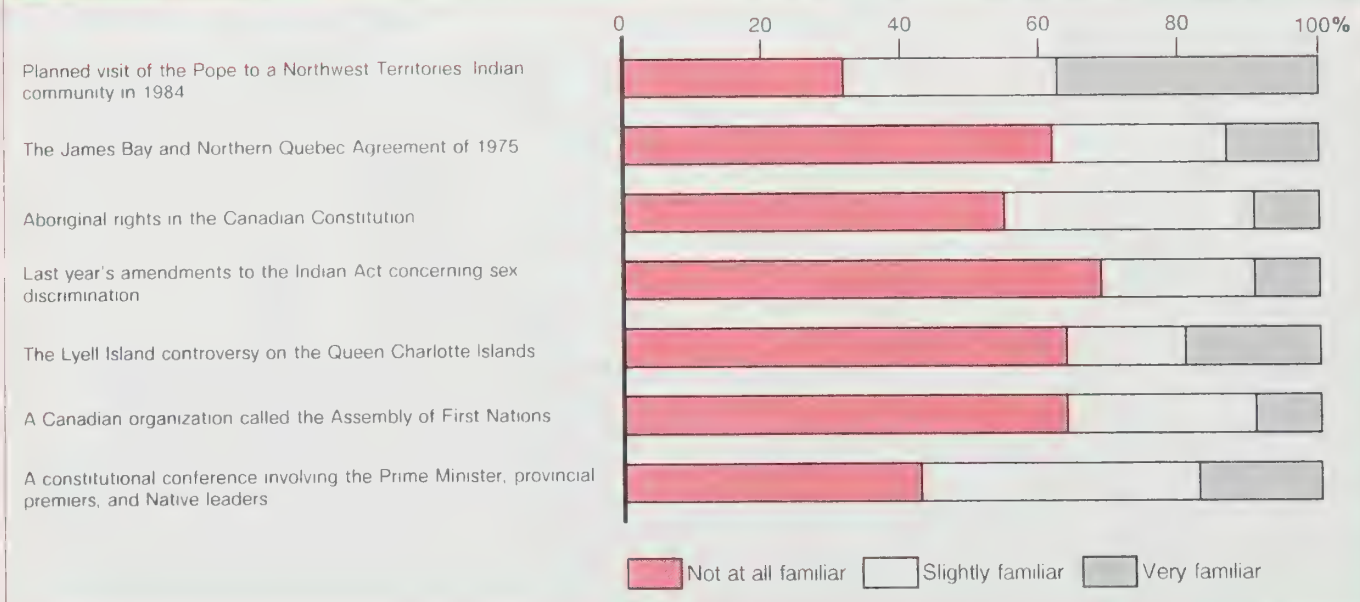
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Canadians' knowledge about Native affairs in 1986



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Components of the Index of Familiarity with Native Events/Phenomena, 1986



logging companies and Haida Indians in the Queen Charlotte Islands.

Only the two items involving well-known public figures received relatively high scores. These were "the planned visit of the Pope to a Northwest Territories' Indian community in 1984" and "a constitutional conference involving the Prime Minister, provincial premiers, and Native leaders."

Current measures of the Native population

According to the latest available data, the Native population of Canada can be described as follows:

The federal department of Indian and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC) 1987 register count of Status Indians stood at 415,898 individuals. As of July 15, 1988, figures for those people applying for reinstatement as registered Indians under Bill C31 were: reinstatement applications completed 61,008; applications in process 21,331; applications still to be reviewed 21,794, for a grand total of 104,133.

In the 1981 Census of Canada, the count of non-Status Indians was 75,110.

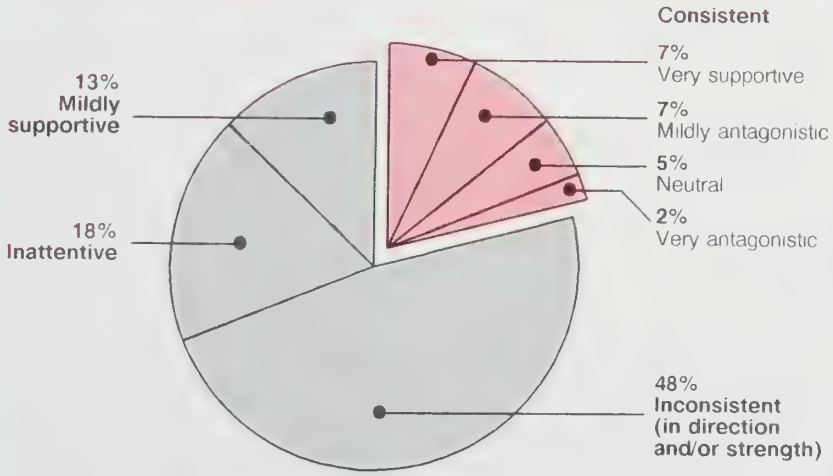
The 1986 Census of Canada showed the total population with aboriginal origins as follows:

• North American Indian	286,225	(40.22%)
• North American Indian and non-aboriginal	239,400	(33.64%)
• Metis	59,745	(8.39%)
• Metis and non-aboriginal	68,695	(9.65%)
• Inuit	27,290	(3.83%)
• Inuit and non-aboriginal	6,175	(0.87%)
• Other multiple responses with aboriginal origin(s)	23,995	(3.37%)
• Total population with aboriginal origins	711,720	(100%)

+ See also, Andrew Siggner, 'The Socio-demographic Conditions of Registered Indians,' Canadian Social Trends, Winter 1986, pp. 2-9.

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Structure of the Canadian public on Native issues, 1986



These findings parallel results on comparable questions in the 1976 study. For instance, over 55% in both studies reported virtually no familiarity (in 1976, vague familiarity at best) with the James Bay and Northern Quebec Agreement. Similarly, in 1976, two-thirds reported no familiarity or only vague familiarity with "the 1974 Supreme Court of Canada decision rejecting an Indian woman's argument that the Indian Act violated the Canadian Bill of Rights," while in 1986 the same proportion reported no familiarity with "last year's amendments to the Indian Act concerning sex discrimination." The latter was the government's legislative response to the issue raised in the 1974 court case.

Structure of the public

In light of the low levels of knowledge and familiarity with Native matters, it comes as no surprise that the Canadian population is not rigidly divided into opposing camps, each exhibiting consistency of opinion on Native issues. For instance, across two six-item Indexes of Sympathy for Natives/Indians, only a small fraction (2%) of the sample consistently falls at the very antagonistic end of the spectrum, while 7% consistently fall at the opposite extreme as very supportive.

Almost half of Canadians hold inconsistent views in the strength or the direction of their opinion on Natives and Native issues. A further one in five Canadians is almost totally inattentive to Native issues, although he or she will often render an opinion when asked by an interviewer.

Overall, considering those persons whose views are consistent and which fall not just in the extreme categories but also in the neutral, mildly antagonistic, and mildly supportive ranges, one finds that those with favourable views toward Natives outnumber those who hold antagonistic views by a margin of about

[3] In 1986, the categories were "very," "slightly," and "not at all" familiar. In 1976, the categories were "quite," "somewhat," "vaguely," and "not at all" familiar. A respondent's score on the 1986 index was his/her average score over the seven items, where scores could range from 1.0 ("not at all familiar") to 3.0 ("very familiar").

[4] For instance, Section 35.1 of the Constitution Act, 1982, states: "The existing aboriginal and treaty rights of the aboriginal peoples of Canada are hereby recognized and affirmed."

two to one. Nevertheless, those who do not show attitudinal consistency (48%) outnumber those who do.

The structure of the public varies considerably from one region of Canada to another. For instance, a clear majority in each of the western provinces falls into the "inconsistent" category, and in Quebec, an unusually large portion of the population (about 30%) falls in the "inattentive" category.

General orientations: changes since 1976

The findings from the 1986 survey taken together with comparable measures from 1976 suggest that there has been a slight erosion in support for Natives over the ten-year period, to the extent that six questionnaire items included in both surveys are indicative of the general tenor of public opinion towards Natives. A comparative Index of Sympathy (or general supportive attitudes) for Indians was formed by combining scores from six individual questions. Examination of the distribution of Canadians on this Sympathy Index reveals that, relative to the 1976 curve, the 1986 curve is shifted slightly toward the unsupportive end of the continuum.[5]

However, it is important to bear in mind that despite that slight erosion of attitudinal support, the average in 1986 is almost exactly at the mid-point on the continuum. On average, Canadians do not tend to be markedly hostile nor markedly supportive in their attitudes toward Indians. Nor does either year's curve exhibit two "humps" that would indicate a sharply divided public.

Several other items from 1976 were also repeated in 1986. Among these was one which revealed that Canadians continue to attach low priority to the improvement of the social and economic situation of Natives.

Self-government and special status

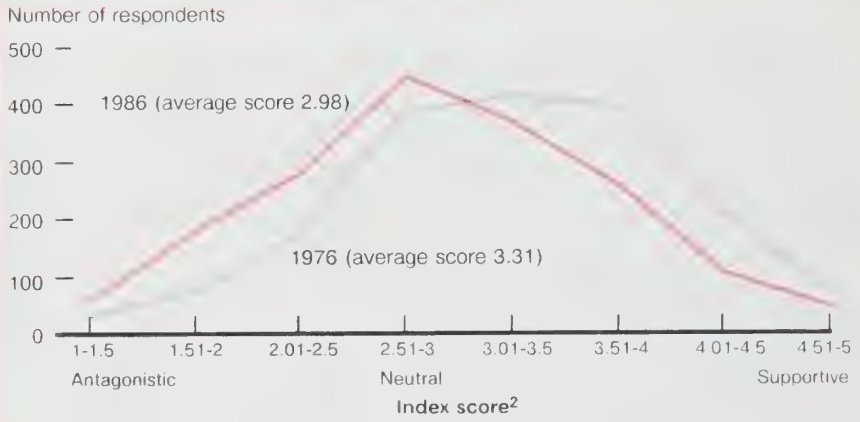
For several years, Native self-government has been the focus of the constitutional debate over Native rights. Significantly, "self-government" and "special status" for Natives elicit quite different responses from Canadians. Self-government is not viewed as a form of "special status" for Natives; instead, it is seen in a much more positive light.

There is a striking contrast between the curve depicting the distribution of the responses of Canadians on the Index of Support of Native Self-Government and the curve depicting the Index of Support for Special Status for Natives. Most Canadians fall on the unsupportive side of the mid-point (3.0) on the "special status" index, while the reverse is true on the "self-government" index.

The shapes of the two curves differ markedly. When the word "special" was

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

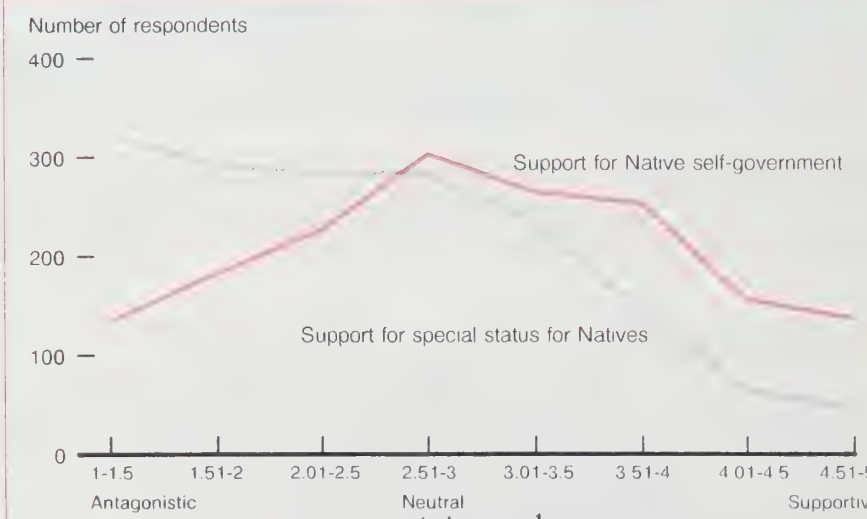
Index of Sympathy for Indians/Natives, 1976 and 1986[1]



[1]1976 data are weighted by province alone. 1986 data are weighted simultaneously by province, age, sex, and language most often spoken at home.
[2]Scores range from 1 (antagonistic) through 3 (neutral) to 5 (supportive) across the items answered (minimum 3 items).

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Support for special status for Natives and for Native self-government, 1986



[1]Scores range from 1 (antagonistic) through 3 (neutral) to 5 (supportive) across the items answered.

[5] The social science literature leads us to expect an even lower level of support for Natives than was found in the 1986 study. Thus, the significance of the changes between 1976 and 1986 should not be over-emphasized, for they may merely be a slower-than-normal appearance of the normal evolution of public opinion on numerous social issues in advanced industrial societies. See Anthony Downs, "Up and Down with Ecology — The 'Issue-Attention Cycle'," *The Public Interest*, XVIII: pp. 38-50.

actually incorporated in a question, responses were even more antagonistic.

For instance, respondents were asked to choose which of the following two statements comes closer to their own view: "For crimes committed by Indians on Indian reserves, there should be special courts with Indian judges"; or "Crimes committed by Indians on Indian reserves should be handled in the same way as crimes committed elsewhere." Almost two-thirds chose the latter statement, while only about one-quarter chose the former statement. An almost identical ratio appeared on two other questions dealing with "special" arrangements in other institutional spheres.

It would seem that self-government is not viewed as a special privilege, but instead, as implementation of a basic democratic right of self-determination. Support for this interpretation is to be found in respondents' answers to a question which asked them to complete the following sentence: "One of the best things that could happen to Indians would be if the federal government_____." By a wide margin, the most frequently cited types of response were those which called for the government to "grant" Indians greater autonomy, self-

continued on page 15

About the survey

The national sample consisted of 1,834 non-aboriginal persons aged 18 and over living in the ten provinces, but excluding the very small populations of the Yukon and Northwest Territories. Within each household, a single respondent who had the next birthday closest to the date of the interview was selected. Households were selected at random by computer using Statistics Canada enumeration areas as the primary sampling unit. Clusters of seven interviews were conducted in each enumeration area selected.

Probability of selection was disproportionate by province, and within each province the sample was stratified by community size. A weighting scheme was used to bring the sample back into the proper proportions vis-à-vis the 1981 non-Native Census population (in the ten provinces). It simultaneously took into account age, sex, province, and language most often spoken at home.

In 19 out every 20 national samples of this size drawn in Canada, the results would fall within about plus or minus two percentage points of the results found here.

Data were collected through in-home, face-to-face interviews averaging seventy minutes in duration. The questionnaire contained two hundred questions, including sixty dealing explicitly with Native matters.

Sampling, translation, data collection, coding of closed-ended questions, and data entry were done under contract by Decima Research Ltd. The questionnaire was designed by the author.

A 1976 survey, comparative results of which are also presented here, was virtually identical in sample size and was very similar in sampling design. Roger Gibbins, a political scientist at the University of Calgary, was co-director of that study.

Comparison of the Index of Comparative Sympathy for Natives, 1976 and 1986

Year	Phraseology of item	% Agreeing	% Disagreeing	National average[1]
1976	The federal Department of Indian Affairs tends to be more concerned with bureaucratic red tape than seeing to the needs of the Indian people.	65	12	3.96
1986	Same	55	15	3.69
1976	Indians deserve to be a lot better off economically than they are now.	72	12	4.05
1986	Same	48	29	2.32
1976	Indians, as the first Canadians, should have special cultural protection that other groups don't have.	44	36	3.09
1986	Same	38	46	2.82
1976	Most Indian leaders who criticize the federal Department of Indian Affairs are more interested in improving their own political position than they are interested in improving the lot of their people.	29	36	3.12
1986	Native leaders who call for self-government for Native people are more interested in promoting their own personal career than in helping Native people.	30	41	3.18
1976	Indian people themselves, not the provincial government, should decide what Indian children are taught in school.	35	49	2.78
1986	Native schools should not have to follow provincial guidelines on what is taught.	22	67	2.18
1976	Where Indian principles of land ownership conflict with the white man's law, Indian principles should be given priority.	30	35	2.91
1986	Same	33	44	2.81

[1] The average can range from 1.0 to 5.0. The mid-point (neutral) is 3.0. For all items, in calculating the average, a response which is strongly supportive of Indians/Natives is scored as 5, a strongly antagonistic response is scored as 1, etc. Thus, on the first item agreeing responses were scored as supportive (4 or 5, depending on whether "strongly agree" or "moderately agree"), and disagreeing responses were scored as antagonistic (1 or 2), while on the fourth item the reverse was true. A score of 3 was assigned to respondents who chose the "neither agree nor disagree" category; while those who said "don't know/no opinion" were not given a score.



Opinions on specific issues: "special status" and self-government, 1988

Statement	Agree strongly	Agree moderately	Neutral	Disagree moderately	Disagree strongly	Don't know; no opinion	Total
				%			
Special status							
If Parliament and the elected leaders of the Native people agreed that some Canadian laws would not apply in Native communities, it would be all right with me.	15	23	10	19	25	9	101[1]
Native schools should not have to follow provincial guidelines on what is taught.	9	13	5	26	41	5	99[1]
Native governments should have powers equivalent to those of provincial governments.	13	18	10	24	27	8	100
Native governments should be responsible to elected Native politicians, rather than to Parliament, for the federal government money they receive.	11	17	15	19	25	13	100
Self-government							
It is important to the future well-being of Canadian society that the aspirations of Native people for self-government be met.	17	25	17	19	14	9	101[1]
Those provincial premiers who oppose putting the right to Native self-government in the Constitution are harming Native people.	17	21	17	21	13	12	101[1]
Most Native leaders who call for self-government for Native people are more interested in promoting their own personal career than in helping Native people.[2]	13	17	16	23	18	13	100
The Constitution of Canada should specifically recognize the right of Indians to self-government.	18	23	13	21	19	7	101[1]

[1] Totals may not add to 100% due to rounding.

[2] An agreeing response was treated in the analyses as indicative of an antagonistic toward self-government, and a disagreeing response was treated as supportive of self-government. For all other questions above, the respective interpretations were the reverse of those just cited.

determination, and responsibility over their own affairs.

Land claims

Noteworthy levels of support for Natives were also found on questions dealing with land claims and land use conflicts, particularly those involving natural resource development projects. For instance, the 1976 survey asked whether respondents regarded "all", "many", "few", or "no" Indian land claims as valid. A majority (61%) said "all" or "many," while about one-third (35%) said "few" or "none."

In 1986, on a different question concerning land claims, only about one-fifth (21%) of Canadians seemed to challenge the validity of Native land claims. A challenge was indicated by agreement with the position that the government should offer Natives neither land nor financial compensation when negotiating future land claim settlements with them. Fifteen percent favoured offering only more land, while 22% favoured offering "financial compensation for the lands lost," and 26% favoured offering both land and compensation.

Another important question on land claims in the 1986 survey asked respondents to choose which of three statements comes closest to their own view. The statements, with the percent choosing each, are: "Native land claims should **not** be allowed to delay natural resource projects at all" (19%); "Natural resources development companies should not be allowed to even set foot on land claimed by Natives until those Native land claims have been settled" (42%); and "I haven't given any thought to the matter of land claims and natural resource development" (30%).

Despite the high level of support for Native land claims found in the 1976 survey data, it was expected that the stark choice offered in the 1986 survey — with its implications of job creation — would produce a preponderance of opinion unfavourable to Natives. However, the reverse proved true, as support for Natives on land issues generally held firm over the ten years between the surveys.

Similarly, a slight majority agreed with the statement: "Where Natives' use of land conflicts with natural resource development, Native use should be given priority," while only about one-third of the sample disagreed.

However, there are limits to how far respondents are prepared to go in accommodating Natives on land matters. These limits are illustrated by responses to the statement: "Where Indian principles of land ownership conflict with the white man's law, Indian principles should be given priority." In both 1976 and 1986, those unwilling to make such a major compromise outnumbered those favouring such a compromise — 35% to 30% in 1976 and 44% to 33% in 1986. Average support on the question declined slightly from 2.91 to 2.81 (where scores could range from "1" to "5").

Regional variation

One of the main findings of the 1976 survey was that from one region of the

Glossary of terms

Native peoples: This term includes registered (also called Status) Indians, non-Status Indians, Metis and Inuit.

Native Indians: Usually refers to both Status and non-Status Indians.

The Indian Act: A piece of federal legislation first passed in 1876. The Act sets out the rules governing Indian reserves and outlining the powers held by Band Councils. The Act also sets out the criteria by which persons are or are not recognized as "Indians."

Indian Register: A list of all registered Indians (as defined in the Indian Act) which is kept by the federal department of Indian and Northern Affairs Canada (INAC). Information on this list concerning the demographic characteristics of the Indian population is updated regularly by band officials and published as of December 31 of each year. The Register is intended to list all persons legally entitled to be registered as Status Indians rather than just those who may be ethnically defined as Status Indians (e.g., a non-Indian woman who marries a Status Indian man is legally entitled to be registered as a Status Indian, even if she is not of North American Indian ethnic origin).

Registered Indian: A person who is "registered as an Indian in the Indian Register."

Metis: There are at least two different views about the meaning of the term Metis. Some maintain that the term refers to those of aboriginal ancestry who are descended from the historic Metis community of Western Canada. Others say that Metis refers to anyone of mixed aboriginal and non-aboriginal ancestry who identifies themselves as a Metis, as distinct from Indian or Inuit.

Inuit: Formerly known as Eskimo, these Native peoples have traditionally resided north of the tree line in the Northwest Territories, Labrador, and along the northern coast of Quebec.

Indian bands: Groups of registered Indians recognized by the federal government, for whose common benefit and use, land has been set aside and monies held by the government.

Indian reserve: Land, the legal title to which is held by the federal government, that has been set apart for the use and benefit of an Indian band and that is subject to the terms of the Indian Act.

Off-reserve Indian population: The Indian Register defines an Indian as residing off-reserve if he or she has lived off-reserve for at least 12 consecutive months.

James Bay Agreement of 1975: The first major agreement between the Crown and Native people in Canada since the treaties of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. This agreement was reached after four years of negotiations, court cases, and bargaining following the 1971 announcement of plans to build a system of hydroelectric dams on the east coast of James Bay in the province of Quebec.

Bill C31 and the 1985 Amendments to the Indian Act: Bill C31 was designed to end many of the discriminatory provisions of the Indian Act, especially those which discriminated against Indian women. The Bill changed the meaning of the term "Status" and for the first time allowed for the reinstatement of Indians who had lost or were denied Status and/or band membership in the past. It also allows bands to determine their own band membership criteria.



country to another, there was often striking variation in orientation to, and knowledge about, Indians. In the 1986 data, the same observation can be made for Native people in general, and not just Indians.

On both general and specific measures of support for Indians or Natives, there is a pattern to the regional variation. Respondents in Quebec tended to be most supportive, while those in Ontario and Manitoba ranked close behind. Those in the three most westerly provinces (each considered separately) were least supportive, while those in the Atlantic provinces (combined) fall into an intermediate position, which is usually closer to western Canada than to central Canada.

The distribution on the 1986 Index of Sympathy for Indians[6] illustrates this pattern well. On this scale, where scores can range from a low of "1" to a high of "5" and the mid-point is "3," the national average is 3.29, which is well to the sympathetic side of the mid-point. The average score for Quebec is 3.44, while Ontario and Manitoba are close behind at 3.40 and 3.39, respectively.[7] There is a large gap between these three provinces and the Atlantic region, whose average score is 3.08. Alberta, British Columbia, and Saskatchewan exhibit average scores of 3.08, 3.04 and 2.91, respectively.

Another illustration of regional variation is provided by a question which asked respondents which of three "things" Canadian Indians need most — more money from government, less control by government, or more rights in the Constitution. Nationally, 7%, 33%, and 45% chose these three, respectively, while the remaining 16% were undecided. The proportion choosing "more rights in the constitution" ranged from 33% in Vancouver (and 37% in the rest of British Columbia) to 52% in Toronto and Quebec-outside-Montreal. (Forty-three percent of Montrealers and 46% of Ontarians-outside-Toronto chose this option.) Support for "less control by government" ranged from about 21% in Quebec to about 46% in British Columbia.

Other determinants of opinions

Province of residence was not the only factor to show a significant effect in the formation of attitudes toward aboriginal people. As might be expected, there were numerous other factors which play contributing roles in the formation of public attitudes toward Native peoples and their concerns. Unfortunately, space does not allow an extended discussion of these other contributing factors, and they can only be mentioned in passing here.

For example, support for multiculturalism was found to be associated with many measures of support for Natives. Political party identification at the federal level, as well as strong adherence to the "small-c" conservative philosophy, were also related to views on Native matters. Language spoken was related to both levels of support and knowledge. Francophones tended to be more supportive of, but less knowledgeable about, Natives than were Anglophones.

Two other factors emerge with striking regularity as being particularly important in determining Canadians' orientations toward Natives. These factors were: a person's assessment of the competence of Native people in managing their own affairs and a person's perceptions of whether or not Natives are presently receiving an excessive or an inadequate amount of financial assistance from government.

[6] This Index is slightly different from the previously discussed comparative (1976-1986) Index of Sympathy, because that index excluded some items that form part of the 1986 sympathy scale only.

[7] On some indexes or individual questions, there is also considerable variation within Quebec and/or within Ontario, as between the dominant city and the rest of the provinces.

Canadians who perceive Natives to be receiving too much financial assistance from government are highly likely to be **unsupportive** of Natives on all four of the indexes examined here. In contrast, if a respondent holds the view that adequately funded Native governments are able to meet the needs of individual Natives better than governments can, then that person is highly likely to be **supportive** of Natives on all four indexes.

Among factors showing little effect on attitudes were: age, sex, level of formal education, family income, labour union membership, religious affiliation, size of community of residence, disposition to support underdogs, and having experienced a declining standard of living (or its opposite).

One final note on the determinants of attitudinal support for Natives is in order. Despite assessing over two dozen factors in attempting to explain why people hold supportive or unsupportive views, it did not prove possible to account for more than 40% of the variation observed. Thus, our current understanding of the factors leading to the formation of views on Native issues is at best modest.

Summary

When surveyed, Canadians tend to be generally supportive of Natives' aspirations for self-government and their land claims, but are wary of arrangements which connote special privileges. Over a ten-year period ending in 1986, attitudes and opinions toward Natives and Native issues changed very little from their generally supportive levels. This support was not based on extensive knowledge of Native issues; knowledge levels remained low.

Important also is the fact that the Canadian public is not rigidly divided into two opposing camps on Native issues. Canadians' views on Natives and Native issues are **not** tightly interwoven with larger philosophical views. However, in the absence of such linkages between Native issues and wider concerns, those Native issues remain on the periphery of Canadians' consciousness.

The assistance of Marion Jones in providing the "Glossary of terms" and "Current measures of the Native population" is gratefully acknowledged.

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DIVORCE RATES IN CANADA

by Owen Adams



The annual divorce rate in Canada has increased dramatically over the last two decades. This occurred largely because of the easing of legal restrictions on marital dissolution as a result of the 1968 Divorce Act and the Divorce Act, 1985.

The most recent legislation, the Divorce Act, 1985, was followed by a sharp increase in the divorce rate, which reversed a three-year downward trend. The number of divorces per 100,000 married women rose 25% in 1986, to an all-time high of 1,255. In comparison, the rate had fallen 14% between 1982 and 1985, from 1,164 to 1,004.

Most of the period since the 1968 Divorce Act was passed, however, has been characterized by steadily increasing divorce rates. Shortly after passage of the Act, the rate more than doubled, rising from 235 divorces per 100,000 married women in 1966 to 557 in 1969. Then, during the 1970s, the rate almost doubled again.

Divorce rates highest in Alberta and British Columbia

Divorce rates vary widely across the country. In 1986, there were 1,646 divorces per 100,000 married women in Alberta and 1,514 in British Columbia. This contrasted with 469 in Newfound-

land and 637 in Prince Edward Island. Divorce rates in the other provinces ranged from just under 1,000 in New Brunswick and Saskatchewan, to around 1,100 in Manitoba, and 1,200 in Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Ontario.

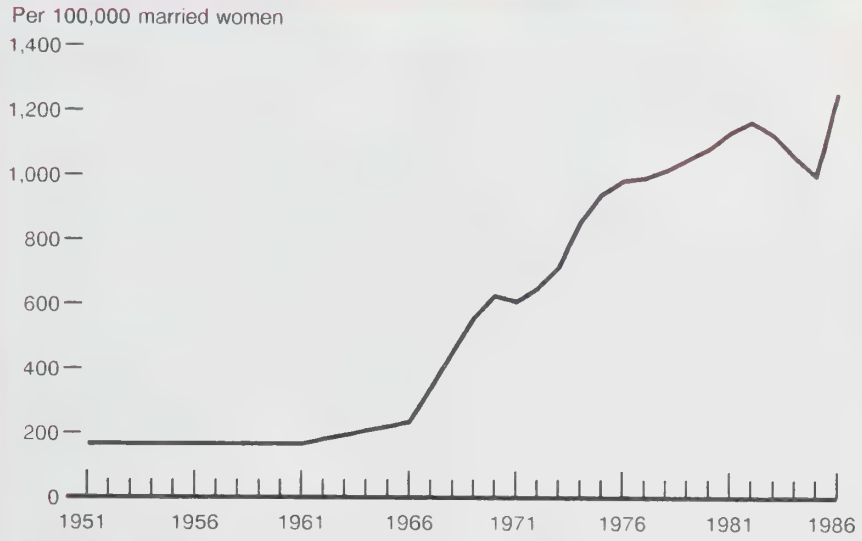
The divorce rate rose in all provinces except Prince Edward Island in 1986. The largest increases occurred in Ontario and British Columbia, where rates rose 35% and 33%, respectively. Increases in Manitoba (25%), Saskatchewan (25%) and New Brunswick (24%) were similar to the national average, while there were somewhat smaller increases in Quebec (16%), Alberta (15%), Newfoundland (9%), and Nova Scotia (8%). On the other hand, the divorce rate fell 12% in Prince Edward Island.

Shorter duration of marriage

The duration of marriage before divorce has become shorter, particularly for people divorcing under the new Act.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

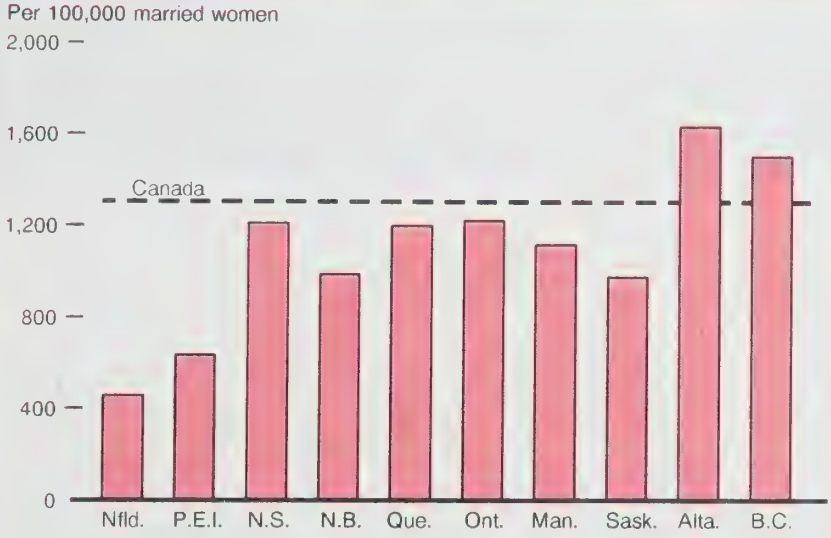
Divorce rate, 1951-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205, and Census of Canada

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Divorce rate, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205.

Legislative changes

Before 1968, a divorce was difficult to obtain in Canada. Divorces were granted only if one of the spouses was proven to have committed adultery. Under the 1968 Divorce Act, however, divorce was permitted for either of two main reasons, or a combination of both. The first was that one of the spouses had committed a matrimonial offence, such as adultery or physical or mental cruelty. The second reason was that permanent marriage breakdown had occurred because of desertion or imprisonment, or because the spouses had lived apart for at least three years.

The Divorce Act, 1985, made marriage breakdown the sole ground for divorce. Under this Act, there are four reasons for marriage breakdown: separation for not less than one year, adultery, physical cruelty, and mental cruelty. Separation for at least one year was cited in 91% of divorces obtained under the new law in 1986.

Couples who divorced in 1986 under the new law had been married a median of 9.1 years, while the figure was 11.2 years for those who divorced that year under the old law. By contrast, in 1969, the median duration of marriage before divorce was almost 15 years.

Fewer children involved

Divorces granted under the new law in 1986 were also less likely to involve children than those granted under the old law. Of divorces obtained in 1986, children were involved in just one-third (34%) granted under the new Act, compared with more than half (52%) obtained under the old Act.

Under the new Act, as was the case under the old Act, wives are most likely to be awarded custody of the children after divorce. Wives received custody of 75% of the children in divorces granted under the new Act for which there was a custody order. The husband won custody of 12% of the children, while joint custody was ordered for 11%. For the remaining 2%, custody was awarded to someone other than the husband or wife.

Owen Adams *is a senior analyst with the Health Division, Statistics Canada.*



THE DECLINE OF UNPAID FAMILY WORK

by Doreen Duchesne

At the turn of the century, when Canadian society was mostly rural, unpaid family workers were an important part of the Canadian workforce. Their numbers, however, declined sharply as the economy industrialized and they now make up only a small fraction of total employment in Canada.

In 1987, for example, only 93,000 people were employed as unpaid family workers and they made up just 0.8% of all Canadians with jobs. These figures are down from 1975, when 132,000 unpaid workers made up 1.4% of total employment.

An **unpaid family worker** is a person who works without pay on a family farm or in a business or professional practice owned and operated by a related member of the same household. Although this type of worker does not receive a formal wage or salary, he or she is considered to benefit financially from the family enterprise.

Most in agriculture

The majority of unpaid family workers are employed in agriculture. In 1987, 59,000 unpaid family workers, 64% of the total, worked in this industry. Their numbers have declined from 92,000 in 1975.

Unpaid family workers continue to be an important source of labour in agriculture, accounting for 12% of all people employed in this industry in 1987. This was down, though, from 19% in 1975.

The remaining third of unpaid family workers are employed in non-agricultural industries. In 1987, there were 34,000 such workers, 14% fewer than in 1975. Most of these workers are employed in retail trade or in community, business and personal service industries.

Married women the main source of unpaid family work

Most unpaid family workers are married women aged 25 and over. In 1987, these women made up 70% of the unpaid family work force. A further 18% of these workers were single 15-19-years-olds.

The number of unpaid family workers in each of these groups has declined. Between 1975 and 1987, the number of married women fell 23% from 84,000 to 64,000, while the number of teenagers dropped 51% from 34,000 to 17,000.

Much of the decline among married women occurred in agriculture. Between 1975 and 1987, the number of married women aged 25 and over working without pay in agriculture dropped 25% from 53,000 to 39,000.

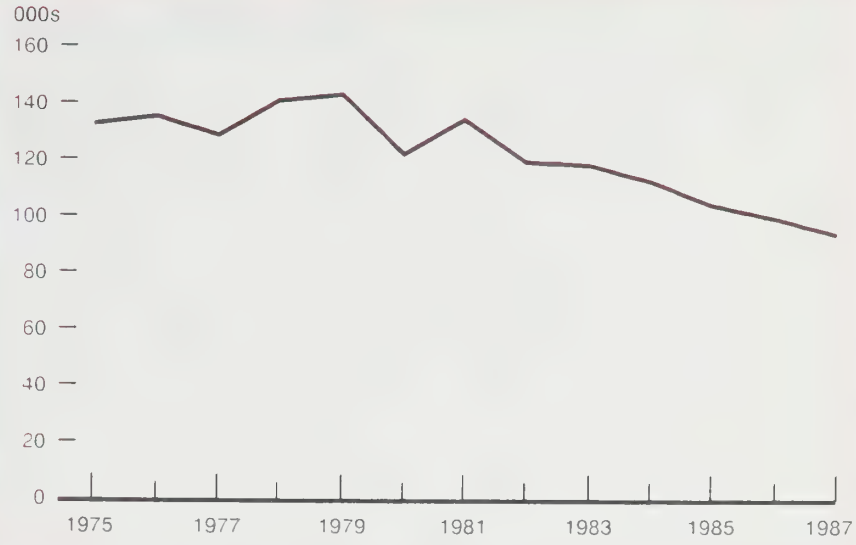
Many of these women, however, were not moving out of agriculture. Rather, they were shifting into paid work and self-employment in this industry. For example, between 1975 and 1987, the number of wives aged 25 and over employed as paid workers in agriculture doubled to 35,000, while the number who were self-employed almost quadrupled to 34,000.

The shift from unpaid to self-employment possibly resulted from recent developments in matrimonial property law. These changes may have played a role in encouraging women to enter formal partnerships with their husbands in order to gain legal recognition for the value of the labour they contribute to the family business.

Changes in taxation law may have encouraged the shift to paid work. Since 1980, owners of unincorporated businesses have been allowed to claim a spousal employee's income as a tax deduction.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

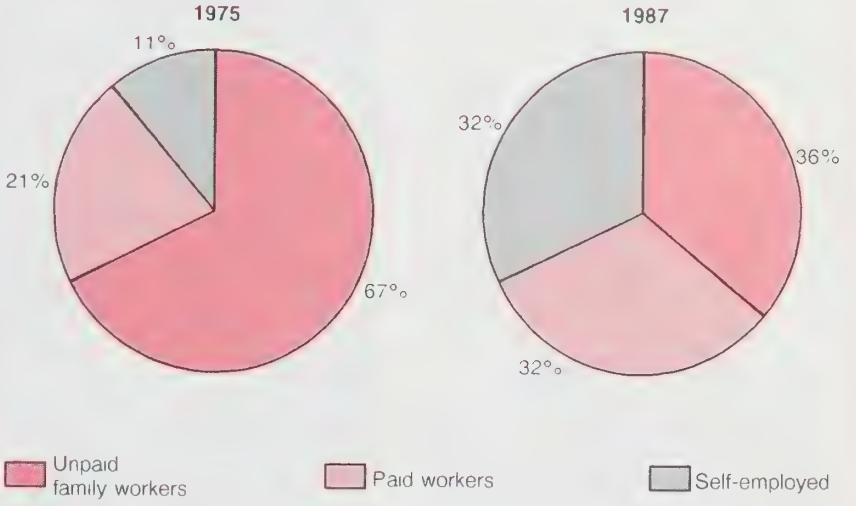
Unpaid family workers, 1975-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Married women aged 25 and over in agriculture, by class of worker, 1975 and 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

Doreen Duchesne *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

• For further information on unpaid family workers, see: *The Decline of Unpaid Family Work in Canada*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-535, No. 2

TRENDS IN SUICIDE

by Renée Beneteau

As a result of major increases in the Canadian suicide rate in the 1960s and 1970s, suicide rates during the 1980s have been the highest in history. During the last decade, the suicide rate has been about double what it was throughout most of the period from 1921 to 1961; as well, it has remained considerably above previous highs recorded during the Depression of the 1930s.

There were particularly large increases in the incidence of suicide among young adult men. By the mid-1980s, men in their twenties had one of the highest suicide rates of any age group. This is a change from the past when older men were generally the most likely to take their own lives. Suicide rates have also increased among women, although their rates remain well below those of men.

Increases in suicide

In 1986, the deaths of almost 3,700 Canadians were reported as suicides.[1] This represented 14.6 suicides for every 100,000 people, nearly double the rate that prevailed during most of the period from the early 1920s to the early 1960s. During the latter period, for example, there were around 7.5 suicides per 100,000 population. As well, the 1986 figure was well above the previous historical highs of just under 10 suicides per 100,000 population recorded in the early 1930s.



[1] The actual number of suicides in Canada may be underreported. A death is only certified as a suicide by medical and legal authorities when the victim's intent is clearly proven.

Almost all the increase in the suicide rate since 1960 occurred during the 1960s and 1970s. Between 1960 and 1978, the rate rose from 7.6 suicides per 100,000 population to 14.8. During the 1980s, the suicide rate has been relatively stable, ranging from a high of 15.1 suicides per 100,000 population in 1983, the highest rate ever recorded in Canada, to a low of 13.7 in 1984.

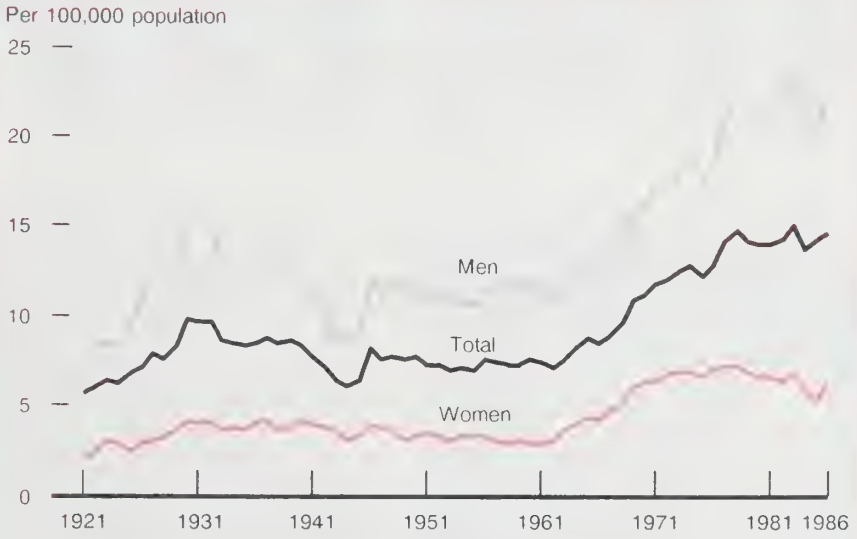
Suicide has accounted for roughly 2% of all deaths in Canada annually since the late 1970s. This proportion has risen over the last several decades from 1% in 1960 and 1.5% in 1970. In 1921, just 0.5% of all deaths were recorded as suicides.

Suicide largely a male phenomenon

The suicide rate for men is much higher than for women. In 1986, there were 22.8 suicides for every 100,000 men compared with 6.4 for every 100,000 women. Overall, almost 80% of all suicide victims in 1986 were men.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

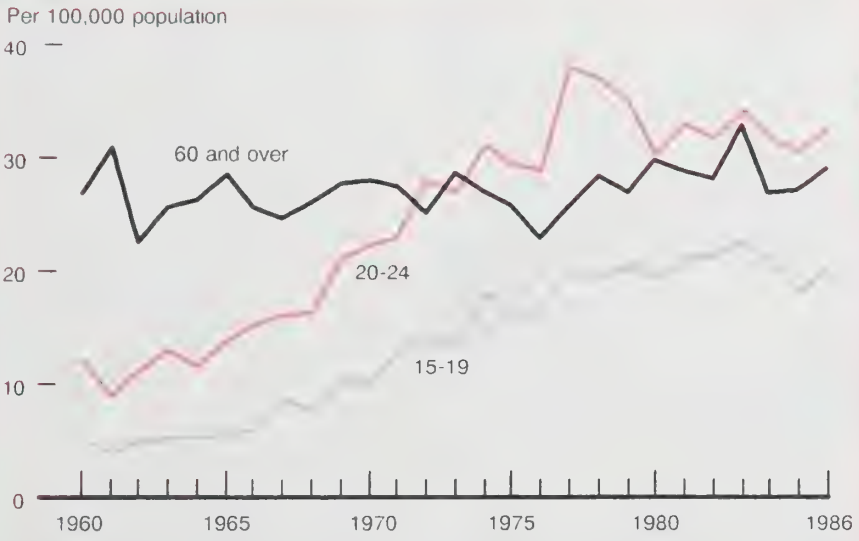
Suicide rate, by sex, 1921-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 84-202, 84-206 and 84-528

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Suicide rate for men aged 15-24 and 60 and over, 1960-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 84-206 and 84-528

Suicide rates have nearly doubled for both men and women since the early 1960s; however, the growth patterns have varied. In particular, since the late 1970s, the rate for men has increased, while that for women has fallen.

Largest increases among young adult men

The largest increases in suicide have occurred among younger men. The suicide rate for men aged 15-19 rose from 5.3 per 100,000 population in 1960 to 20.2 in 1986. The rate for men in this age group, though, remains somewhat below rates for men aged 20 and over.

The suicide rate for men aged 20-24 also rose substantially from 12.3 in 1960 to 32.8 in 1986. In the same period, rates for men aged 25-44 nearly doubled. As a result, 1986 suicide rates for men aged 20-44 were generally either equal to, or greater than, those for older men. This is in sharp contrast to the early 1960s when rates for men aged 45 and over were considerably greater than those for men under age 45.

The suicide rate for men in their twenties is particularly high. In 1986, there were around 33 suicides per 100,000 men in this age range, the highest rate for any age group except men aged 70 and over.

Suicide rates, though, remain high for older men. In 1986, there were 34.9 suicides per 100,000 men aged 70 and over, the highest rate for any age group.

An international perspective

The suicide rate in Canada is similar to that in the United States. According to the World Health Organization, the age-standardized (to the world population) suicide rate in Canada in 1985 was 11.3 per 100,000 population. This was just slightly greater than the figure of 10.7 reported for the United States in 1984.

On the other hand, the Canadian suicide rate is generally below those in most European countries. For example, the Canadian rate was below those in Finland (22.6*), Austria (22.3*), Denmark (22.0), Switzerland (18.1*), France (17.5), Sweden (14.5), West Germany (14.0*), and Norway (12.5). The Canadian rate, though, was above those in England and Wales (7.1) and the Netherlands (9.3).

*Figure is for 1986; other figures are for 1985.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Suicide rate, by province, 1975 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-206

The suicide rate for other male groups over age 45 ranged from 24.6 for men aged 65-69 to 30.0 for those aged 50-54.

There has, however, been little change in suicide rates among men aged 45 and over since the early 1960s. There were small increases in rates for men aged 45-54 and 70 and over, while rates for men aged 55-69 actually declined.

The age distribution of women who commit suicide differs from that of men, though for all age groups the female suicide rate is well below that for males.

The highest female suicide rate in 1986 occurred among women aged 50-54. That year, there were 12.9 suicides for every 100,000 women in this age range. Rates for other groups in the 30-69 age range varied from 7.9 for women aged 55-59 to around 10 for women aged 45-49 and 60-64.

In contrast to the situation with men, suicide rates among women aged 20-29 and 70 and over were relatively low. In 1986, there were fewer than 7 suicides per 100,000 women in these age ranges.

The suicide pattern among women aged 15-19 was similar to that for men of the same age. The incidence of suicide among women in this age group increased substantially in the 1960-1986 period, though their 1986 suicide rate was still below that for all groups of women aged 20 and over.

Male suicides more violent

Men generally employ more violent means than women to commit suicide. In 1986, 38% of male suicides involved firearms and another 27% were by hanging or strangulation. In contrast, only 12% of female victims used firearms, while 19% either hanged or strangled themselves.

Female suicide victims, on the other hand, were more likely than male victims to use drugs, pills, or other medication. In 1986, more than a third of all female victims (37%) compared with just 9% of men used these methods.

Another 13% of male and 10% of female suicides involved poisoning by gas, usually motor vehicle exhaust. The remaining 14% of male suicides and 23% of female suicides were committed by other methods such as drowning, jumping from high places, or stabbing.

Narrowing of provincial differences

Suicide rates have historically been higher in the west than in the eastern or central provinces. These differences, however, have diminished in recent years, primarily because of large increases in the incidence of suicide in Quebec and New Brunswick.

Alberta had the highest suicide rate in Canada in 1986 with 17.9 deaths per 100,000 population. The second-highest rate (17.6) was reported in Quebec. This was a major change from earlier years when Quebec's rate was among the lowest in Canada. For example, in 1975, there were just 9.3 suicides per 100,000 population in Quebec, the third lowest rate in the country.

The incidence of suicide also increased substantially in New Brunswick from 8.0 suicides per 100,000 population in 1975 to 13.5 in 1986.

Suicide rates in the remaining provinces were either stable or declined in the last decade. As a result, rates in Ontario and the other eastern provinces in 1986 were just below those in British Columbia, Saskatchewan, and Manitoba. The exception to this was Newfoundland, where there were only 4.0 suicides per 100,000 population.

Suicide high among Native Canadians

Suicide rates are especially high among Native people. In 1986, there were 56.3 suicides for every 100,000 Native men, almost 2.5 times the rate for all men (22.8). At the same time, the rate for Native women (11.8) was almost double the rate for all women (6.4).

The incidence of suicide is particularly high among young Native men. In 1986, there were more than 100 suicides for every 100,000 Native men aged 15-29.

Suicides in prisons

The suicide rate is also very high in federal penitentiaries and provincial prisons. In 1986, 17 inmates in these institutions committed suicide; this represented a rate of more than 60 suicides per 100,000 prison population.

Renée Beneteau *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE, CANCER AND LIFE EXPECTANCY

by Dhruva Nagnur and Michael Nagrodski

One way of measuring the effect of any specific disease is to estimate the number of years that would be added to life expectancy if deaths from that disease were deleted.[1] When these estimates are calculated for all causes of death in Canada, the deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease and cancer[2] result in, by far, the largest gains in life expectancy. In fact, the total gains to life expectancy that would result if deaths from these two diseases were deleted is much greater than that for all other diseases combined.

The deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease alone would result in the largest estimated gains in life expectancy of any disease. However, the number of years that would have been added to the average life expectancy of Canadians through the deletion of deaths due to this disease has declined slightly in recent years.

On the other hand, gains in life expectancy that would occur as a result of the deletion of deaths due to cancer have continued to increase, although they are still much smaller than those for cardiovascular disease.



Cardiovascular disease

The deletion of cardiovascular disease deaths would have added an estimated

[1] The assumption is made that all causes of death operate independently of one another.

[2] Cardiovascular disease refers to all diseases in Chapter VII of the 9th revision of *International Classification of Diseases*; cancer includes all diseases in Chapter II.

13.1 years to the life expectancy of women born in 1981 and 8.7 years to that of men. This would have raised the total life expectancy of women to 92 years, and that of men to 81 years.

The potential number of years of life that would be gained by the deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease, though, has fallen in recent decades. For example, the estimated increase for women was highest in 1971 when almost 15 years would have been added to female life expectancy. For men, the peak year was 1961, when over 11 years would have been added to their life expectancy.

Current estimates of gains in life expectancy that would occur if cardiovascular disease deaths were deleted, however, are still well above those recorded in the early part of the century. In 1921, the elimination of deaths due to cardiovascular disease would have added just 4 years to the life expectancy of both men and women.

Cancer

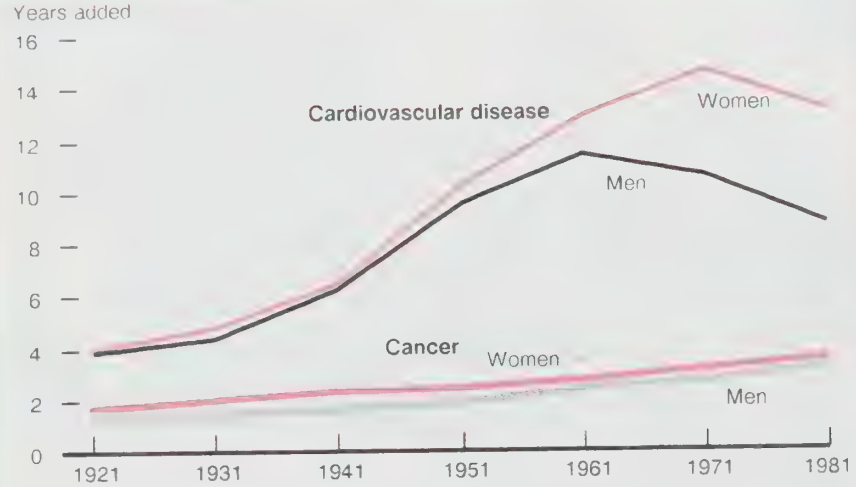
The deletion of deaths due to cancer would also add significantly to estimates of life expectancy in Canada, although these gains are considerably smaller than those for cardiovascular disease. But while gains in life expectancy attributable to the deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease have declined in recent decades, those for cancer have continued to increase.

Eliminating cancer deaths would have added 3.5 years to the life expectancy of women born in 1981, and 3.2 years to that of men. Ten years earlier, the gains would have been 3.1 years for women and 2.7 for



CANADIAN

Years added to life expectancy if cardiovascular disease and cancer deaths were deleted, 1921-1981



Source: Nagnur, D. and M. Nagrodski, *Cause-deleted Life Tables for Canada (1921-1981)*, Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Research Paper No. 13

Cardiovascular disease and cancer: leading killers

There have been major shifts in the leading causes of death in Canada since the early 1920s. While cardiovascular disease has been the leading cause of death for both men and women since early in the century, the proportion of all deaths attributable to this cause was much larger in 1986 than in 1921.

In 1986, deaths from cardiovascular disease made up 45% of all deaths of women and 41% of those of men; this compared with fewer than 20% of deaths of both sexes in 1921. The percentage of deaths due to cardiovascular disease, however, has dropped in recent decades, from peaks of 51% for women in 1971 and 49% for men in 1961.

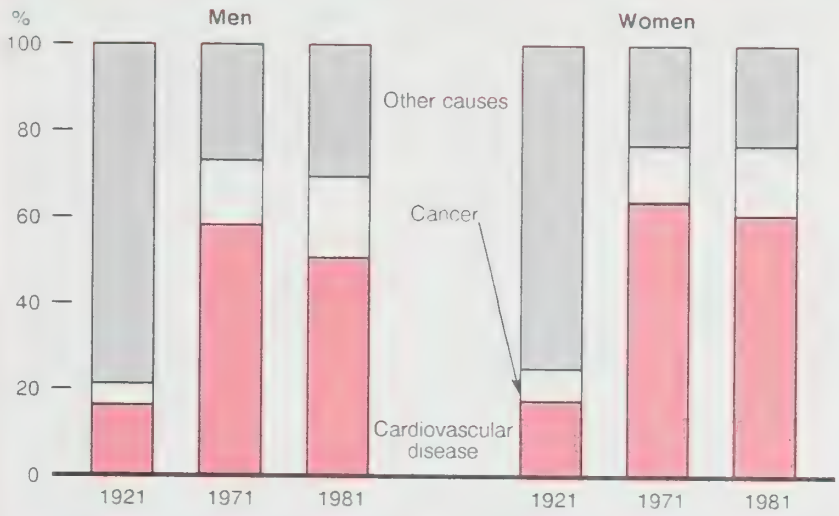
Cancer has been the second leading cause of death of women since 1931 and of men since 1941. In 1986, cancer accounted for 26% of all deaths of both men and women; this compared with 9% of female deaths and 7% of male deaths in 1921.

Unlike cardiovascular disease, though, the share of deaths attributable to cancer has continued to grow in recent years. For example, in 1971, 21% of all female deaths and 19% of those of men were due to this disease.

A number of other diseases which accounted for large shares of all deaths in the early part of the century are now almost unheard of as causes of death. Infectious and parasitic diseases, including tuberculosis, accounted for almost 15% of deaths in 1921; in 1986, however, only about half of one percent of all deaths were the result of these diseases. Similarly, certain diseases of infancy were responsible for almost 10% of deaths in 1921 compared with fewer than 1% in 1986.

CANADIAN Social Trends

Percentage of total years added to life expectancy by the deletion of major causes of death, 1921, 1971 and 1981



Source: Nagnur, D. and M. Nagrodski, *Cause-deleted Life Tables for Canada (1921-1981)*. Statistics Canada, Analytical Studies Branch, Research Paper No. 13

men, while in 1921, the gains would have been 1.7 years for women and 1.2 for men.

Cardiovascular disease, cancer and other diseases

The deletion of deaths due to cardiovascular disease and cancer would have added a total of 16.6 years to the life expectancy of women born in 1981, whereas the deletion of all other causes of death combined would have added just 4.9 years. The difference was not quite as large for men; still, the estimated gain in male life expectancy as a result of the deletion of cardiovascular disease and cancer (11.9 years) was over twice that of all other causes of death combined (5.2 years.)

Of other causes of death, the elimination of accidental and violent deaths (excluding motor vehicle accidents) would have added the most to the life expectancy of both men and women. The elimination of this cause of death would have added 1.4 years to the life expectancy of men born in 1981 and 0.7 years to that of women. Increases to overall life expectancy of both men and women were very small for all other causes of death.

Conclusion

Cardiovascular disease and cancer far outweigh all other causes of death in their impact on life expectancy. As well, it is probable that this will be the case over the next several decades, particularly as the proportion of the population aged 65 and over continues to rise. Health care priorities will inevitably continue to be affected by these two diseases, especially the growing importance of cancer as a cause of death.

Both authors are with the Social and Economic Studies Division, Statistics Canada: **Dhruva Nagnur** *is a senior demographer and* **Michael Nagrodski** *is a technical officer.*

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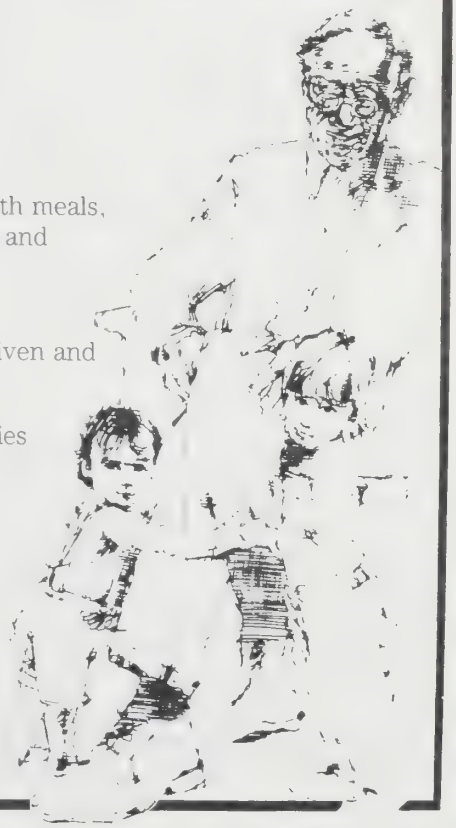
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PART-TIME ADULT TRAINING

by Mary Sue Devereaux and Douglas J. Higgins

In today's rapidly changing work environment, education does not necessarily end once people leave school and settle into a job. For many workers, education is a lifelong process. Because of work or family responsibilities, however, few adults are able to go back to school full-time. As a result, many people seeking to improve job-related skills, increase earnings, or expand employment opportunities enroll in part-time courses. In 1985, 1.3 million Canadians, or more than 8% of the population aged 17-65, participated in such programs.

People who are already relatively well-educated, who are working full-time, or who are employed in a professional or technical occupation are also the most likely to continue their education through part-time training. On the other hand, much smaller proportions of those with little formal education, who work in blue collar jobs, or who are unemployed or not in the labour force enroll in part-time courses.



Wide provincial variations

Participation in part-time training varied across the country. About 11% of people aged 17-65 in Alberta took at least one course in 1986, while the figure was around 9% in British Columbia, Manitoba, and Ontario. Participation rates in the remaining provinces ranged from 7% in Saskatchewan and Quebec to just 3% in Newfoundland.

Training most common at ages 25-44

People aged 25-44 were the most likely to enroll in part-time training courses. In 1985, 12% of 25-34-year-olds and 10% of 35-44-year-olds took at least one such course. Participation in training was much less common among younger and older age groups. For instance, only 6% of people aged 17-24 or 45-54 took a part-time training course, while the figure was just 2% for 55-65-year-olds.

At most ages, men were more likely than women to take a training course. Among 25-34-year-olds, for example, 13% of men and 11% of women took a course, while for those aged 35-44, the participation rate was 11% for men and 9% for women. The exception to this pattern occurred in the 17-24 age group where 8% of women compared with 5% of men took at least one part-time course.

Married men, single women

There was also a contrast between the part-time training activity of men and women depending on their marital status. In 1985, 10% of married men, compared with 7% of separated/divorced men and 6% of those who were single, took a course. The trend for women was just the reverse. Close to 10% of both single and

separated/divorced women participated in a training program, compared with only 7% of married women.

These tendencies are related to the fact that married men are more likely than men in other marital categories to be in the labour force, while the opposite is the case for women. Since training, by definition, is undertaken for job-related reasons, training rates are highest among married men and lowest for married women.

Training for the well-educated

People were more likely to enroll in part-time training if they already had a high level of formal education. In 1985, 18% of university graduates and 14% of college graduates took a course, compared with just 5% of those who had not gone beyond high school and fewer than 2% of people with less than Grade 9.

Full-time workers most likely to enroll

Because training is work-related, participation rates were highest among people who were employed, especially those with full-time jobs. In 1985, almost 12% of full-time workers enrolled in a part-time training course. In comparison, the figure dropped to 8% for part-time workers, 6% for the unemployed, and just 2% for those not in the labour force.

A professional activity

Participation in part-time training was also closely related to occupation. People in white collar jobs, especially professional and technical positions, were more likely than other workers to take a course. Professional and technical personnel, however, are also more likely than those in other jobs to have a postsecondary education, which, as noted earlier, is associated with high participation rates in part-time training.

In 1985, 16% of people employed in professional and technical occupations took a part-time training course. This compared with 10% of those in clerical positions, 8% in sales, and 6% of blue collar workers.

Full-time training

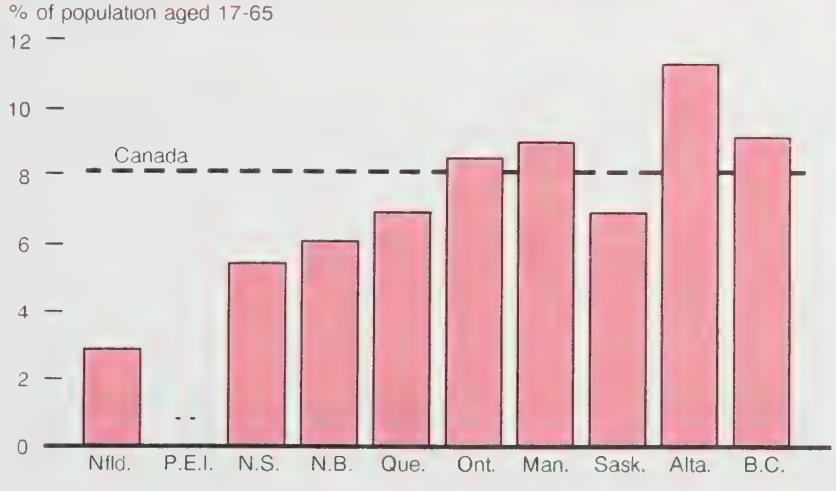
In addition to the 1.3 million adults who took part-time training courses in 1985, another 570,000 were enrolled in full-time programs. These courses involved instruction for most of each working day for a month or more.

Most people in full-time programs (79%) attended educational institutions such as universities, community colleges, or trade schools. The others were enrolled in either apprenticeships (12%) or employer-organized programs (9%).

While most people in full-time programs were completing the requirements for a university degree, community college diploma, or trade certificate, about 5% took upgrading or orientation courses in basic skills such as reading and writing, elementary mathematics, or job readiness.

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Participation rate in part-time adult training, by province, 1985



- - amount too small to be expressed

Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Adult Training Survey, February, 1986.

Service sector higher

Training was more common among people employed in the service sector than among those working in goods-producing industries. In 1985, about 10% of service sector workers, compared with 7% of goods-producing employees, enrolled in a part-time training course.

Within the service sector, participation in part-time training was particularly high in non-commercial services such as education, health and welfare, and public administration, each of which has a high concentration of well-educated, professional personnel. In 1985, 14% of workers in these industries took at least one part-time training course. In contrast, only 8% of those employed in commercial services took a course.

Business and commerce courses most popular

The largest proportion of part-time adult training courses were in business and commerce. In 1985, 22% of all courses were in these areas. Technology/trades and data processing each accounted for another 10% of courses, while 8% were in medical/dental subjects, 7% were in each of the humanities and social sciences, 6% were in mathematics/science/engineering, and 5% were in secretarial science.

While business and commerce courses were the first choice of both men and women, there were differences in the other types of training chosen by each sex. While a relatively high percentage of men enrolled in technology/trades (18%), few women were attracted to this field. Alternatively, 10% of women, but virtually no men, took courses in secretarial science. Much of this variation, though, likely reflects differences in the occupational distribution of men and women.

Employers leading providers

A large proportion of part-time training was provided by employers. In 1985, 34% of all those who took a course participated in an employer-sponsored program. Another 21% took community college courses, 17% took university courses, and 11% enrolled in courses given by unions or professional associations. The remaining 17% attended courses at other institutions including vocational, commercial, and private schools.

The likelihood of taking employer-sponsored courses increased with the size of the firm. Of course-takers working in firms with more than 500 employees, close to half (49%) participated in employer-sponsored programs; this

The Adult Training Survey

The Adult Training Survey was sponsored by Employment and Immigration Canada and conducted by Statistics Canada in February 1986. Because this survey was the first of its kind, comparable time series are not available.

Training was defined as formal educational activity in which participants enrolled for employment-related reasons such as improving job opportunities and skills, increasing earnings, or promoting career development. Educational activities taken out of personal interest or to obtain academic accreditation without any clear job-related purpose were not considered training.

Part-time training included instruction taken daily for most of the working day for less than one month, as well as courses taken a few hours a day, or a few days a week, over any period of time.



compared with just 15% of course-takers employed in firms with fewer than 20 workers.

Paying the price

The majority of part-time training courses, about 70%, required tuition, while the remaining 30% were free. Courses offered by employers were the most likely to be free; just under 70% of these courses entailed no fees. By contrast, 95% or more of all university and community college courses required payment.

For courses which did require tuition, 60% were paid for by the participants, while employers paid for 36%, and the remaining 4% were funded by other sources.

Employers were most likely to finance the training of full-time workers. They paid for 44% of the courses taken by those who worked full-time, compared with only 14% of courses taken by part-time workers. The overwhelming majority (88%) of training participants who were unemployed or not in the labour force paid their own way.

Employer-sponsored courses shorter

The median duration of part-time training courses was 39 hours. The length of courses, though, varied for different providers. Courses sponsored by employers, as well as those supplied by unions and professional associations, had a median duration of 24 hours. University and community college courses tended to be longer, with median durations of 48 and 45 hours, respectively.

The variation in course length is related to the type of training provided by different sponsors. Employers, unions and professional associations usually offer highly job-specific training, whereas many university and community college courses are more theoretical and hence, last longer.

Part-time courses taken by men and women, 1986

Course	Men	Women	Total
		%	
Business/commerce	23	22	22
Technology/trades	18	2[1]	10
Data processing	11	8	10
Medical/dental	6	11	8
Humanities	6	9	7
Social sciences	5	8	7
Mathematics/science/engineering	7	5	6
Secretarial science	--	10	5
Safety	6	--	3
Upgrading/orientation	2[1]	2[1]	2
Other	12	20	17
Don't know/not stated/not applicable	3	2[1]	3
Total	100	100	100
Total number of participants	**707,000**	**635,000**	**1,342,000**

[1] Data are subject to considerable sampling error and should be used with caution.
-- Data are based on too small a sample to be statistically reliable.
Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Adult Training Survey, February 1986.

Mary Sue Devereaux *is a Managing Editor of* Canadian Social Trends *and* **Douglas J. Higgins** *is Chief of the Projections and Analysis Section, Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.*

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,042.5	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,923.3[p]
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	2.2[p]
Immigration[1]	138,079	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	150,804[p]
Emigration[1]	51,060	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	41,440[p]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.5	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	8.0	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.6	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	671	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918	870
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	10,708	11,006	10,644	10,734	11,000	11,311	11,634	11,955
- goods sector (000s)	3,514	3,581	3,260	3,209	3,309	3,348	3,417	3,489
- services sector (000s)	7,194	7,425	7,384	7,525	7,692	7,963	8,217	8,465
Total unemployment (000s)	865	898	1,314	1,448	1,399	1,328	1,236	1,167
Unemployment rate	7.5	7.5	11.0	11.9	11.3	10.5	9.6	8.9
Part-time employment (%)	13.0	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.4	15.5	15.6	15.2
Women's participation rate	50.4	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.5	54.3	55.1	56.2
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.2	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1986 $	37,855	36,923	35,420	34,862	34,828	35,455	36,042	*
% of families with low income	12.2	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	13.3	12.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	-	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	64.9	66.0	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,106.3	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.5[p]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	643.4	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.9[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,738	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,383
Government expenditure on education (1987 $000,000)	28,095.8	28,808.6	28,950.0	29,475.2	28,980.6	31,112.5	29,675.3	30,227.9
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.2	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	*
- women	6.8	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	-	36.7	-	34.0	-	33.1	30.8	*
- women	-	28.9	-	28.3	-	27.8	25.8	*
Government expenditure on health (1987 $000,000)	24,416.9	25,982.5	27,046.9	28,501.8	28,488.5	30,599.6	31,035.1	31,858.1
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	648	666	685	692	714	749	808	856
- property	5,551	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731
- homicide	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1987 $000,000)	118,984.6	121,628.9	130,173.0	136,395.7	138,037.3	144,847.0	145,563.9	147,237.4
- as a % of total expenditures	57.5	57.0	58.0	59.4	58.0	58.9	59.3	60.0
- as a % of GDP	24.7	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.8	27.5	26.7
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,274.1	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,236.0	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,334.3	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,902.9
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	+1.5	+3.7	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.6	+3.2	+4.0
Annual inflation rate (%)	10.2	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4
Urban housing starts	125,013	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340

- Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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- Dual-earner families
- Language profile of Canadians
- Impaired driving offences
- Self-employment
- The service economy in the 1980s

Corrections: Autumn 1988 Issue (p. 34) – In the table Percentage of households with new necessities, 1987, the last line should read

	Nfld.	P.E.I.	N.S.	N.B.	Que.	Ont.	Man.	Sask.	Alta.	B.C.	Canada
Total households (000s)	168	43	313	246	2,530	3,451	405	378	872	1,149	9,556

In the chart (p. 34), Percentage of selected family households with new necessities, 1987, the legend for lone-parent households should be blue, and for other family households, it should be grey

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Autumn — Living Arrangements of Canada's "Older Elderly" Population

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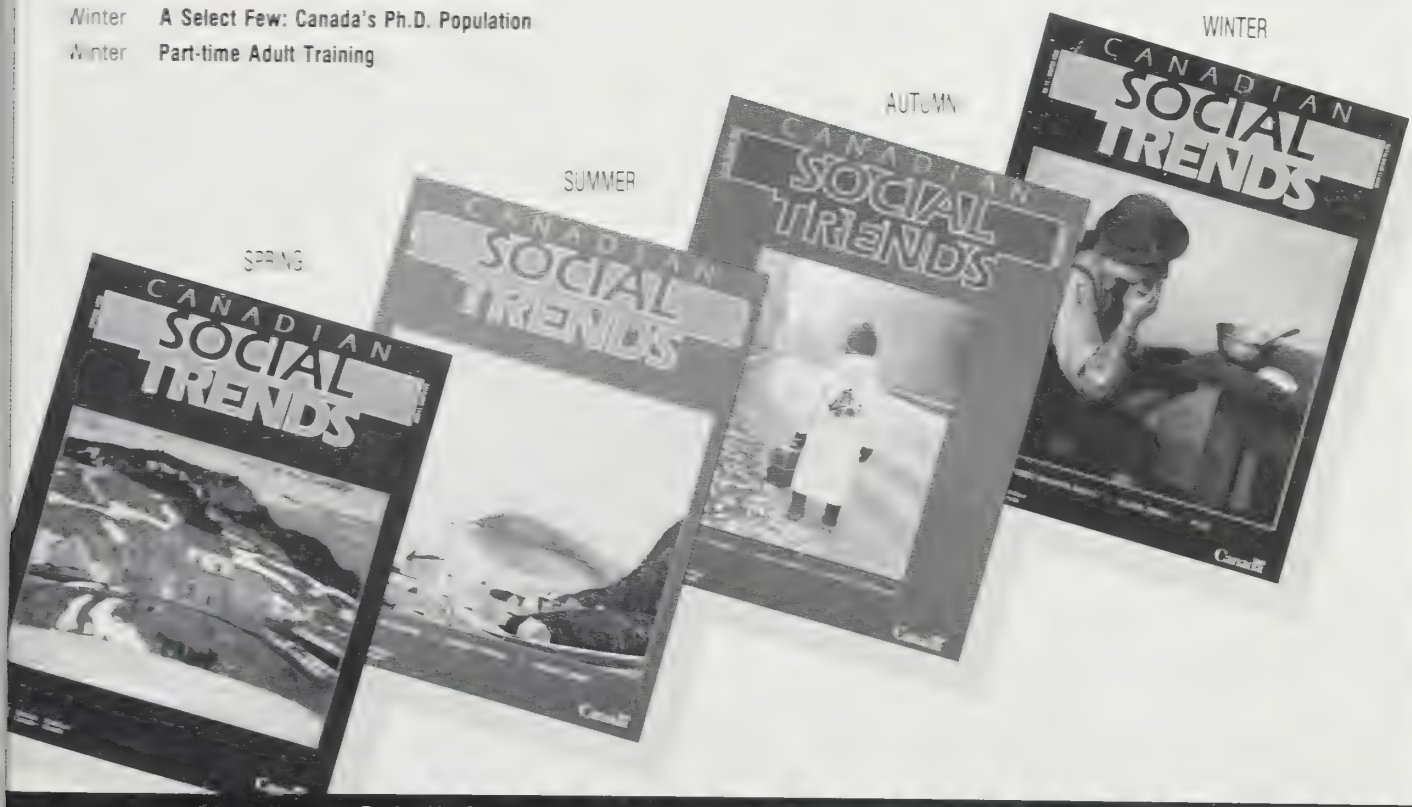
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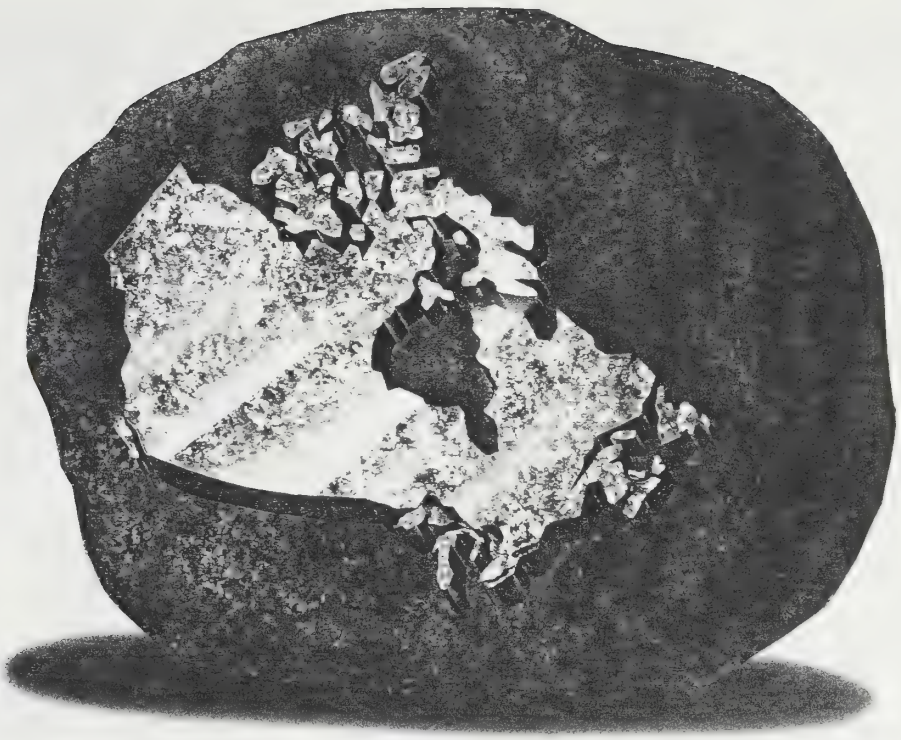


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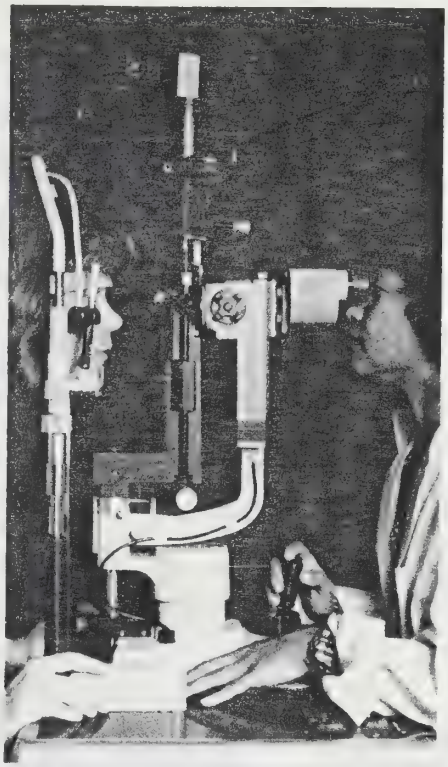
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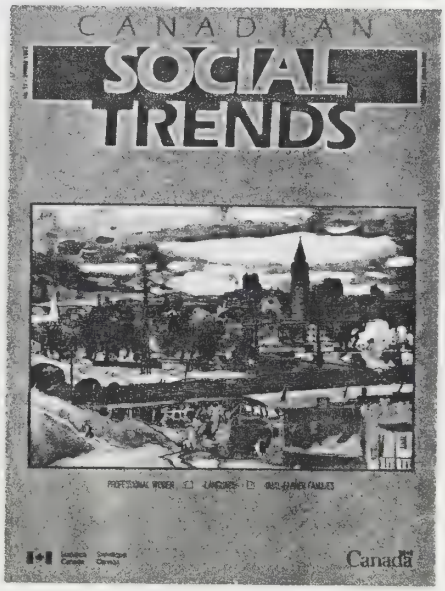
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About the artist:

Marc-Aurèle Fortin was born in Sainte-Rose, just north of Montreal, in 1888. After studying art in Montreal in his late teens, he worked at odd jobs in Montreal and Edmonton to save enough money to study at the Art Institute of Chicago, and in New York and Boston. He exhibited his Canadian and European landscapes with their majestic trees not only in Canada, but also in England, Holland, Brazil and South Africa. In his late sixties, Mr. Fortin became ill and stopped painting for seven years. Confined to a wheelchair, he resumed painting before his death in 1970.

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IMPAIRED DRIVING OFFENCES

by Holly Johnson



There has been a major decline in the incidence of impaired driving offences in Canada in the 1980s.[1] In fact, the number of people charged with impaired driving offences in 1987 was the lowest total since data were first collected in 1974.

The recent decline in the incidence of impaired driving offences mirrors increased efforts by police, community groups, and government to curb this problem over the course of the last decade. According to police statistics, programs like roadside breathalyzers, and groups such as Mothers Against Drunk Driving, Students Against Drunk Driving, and Citizens Against Impaired Driving seem to have had the desired impact on the attitudes and behaviour of Canadians with respect to drinking and driving.

Despite the decline in the number of people charged with impaired driving in the 1980s, drinking and driving remains widespread, and continues to be a major cause of accident, injury, and death on the nation's roadways.

On the basis of roadside surveys, the Road Safety Directorate of Transport Canada estimates that one in four drivers on a typical weekend evening has been drinking, and that one in 20-25 is legally impaired by the effects of alcohol. The Traffic Injury Research Foundation estimates that 25-30% of all drivers injured in motor vehicle accidents are impaired and that almost half of all traffic fatalities involve someone who has been drinking.

The costs of impaired driving, though, go well beyond the health risks to those who drink and drive. For those charged

and convicted with impaired driving offences, additional costs may include the loss of income and employment, strain on families, and loss of status in the community. For victims of traffic accidents involving impaired drivers, the consequences may include lost productivity, emotional trauma, and sometimes serious injury and even death. For society as a whole, the consequences of impaired driving include the costs incurred by the criminal justice and health care systems, as well as rising insurance premiums for other drivers.

Impaired driving offences declining

The incidence of impaired driving declined for the fourth consecutive year in 1987. That year, just over 128,000 people were charged by police with impaired driving offences. This was down about 1% from 1986, and 21% from 1981, when a high of 162,000 persons were charged with these offences.

The decline in the incidence of impaired driving in the 1980s is even sharper when expressed on a per capita basis. In 1987, there were 500 people charged with impaired driving offences for every 100,000 Canadians, a decrease of 2% from 1986, and a drop of 25% from 1981.

The number of people charged with impaired driving as a proportion of all criminal offenders has also declined. In 1987, those charged with impaired driving offences made up 18% of all persons charged under the Criminal Code, down from 24% in 1981.

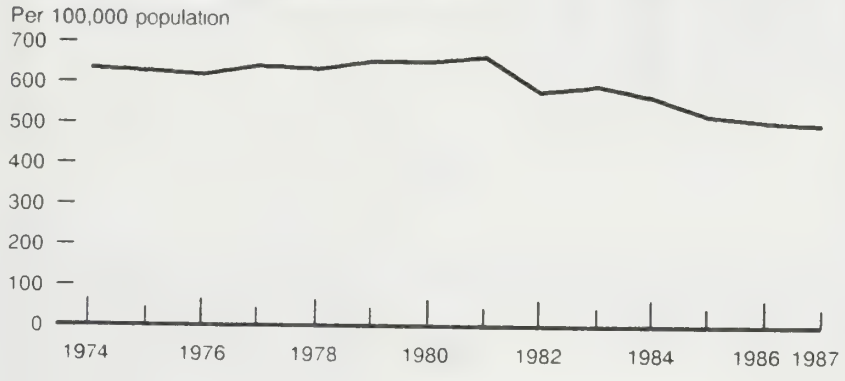
The decline in impaired driving charges in the 1980s represents a change from the previous decade when there was a slight increase in the incidence of these offences. Between 1974 and 1981, for example, the number of people charged with impaired driving offences increased from 631 per 100,000 population to 666, a rise of 6%.

The large majority of impaired driving charges are for operating a motor vehicle either while impaired or with more than 80 mgs. of alcohol in the blood. In 1987, 91% of all people charged with impaired driving were charged with these offences. Failing or refusing to provide a breath sample was the second most common impaired driving offence, accounting for 7% of all persons charged. On the other hand, people charged with impaired driving causing death or bodily harm, or

[1] The data in this article describing impaired driving offences refer only to those incidents of impaired driving known to police.

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Persons charged with impaired driving offences,[1] 1974-1987

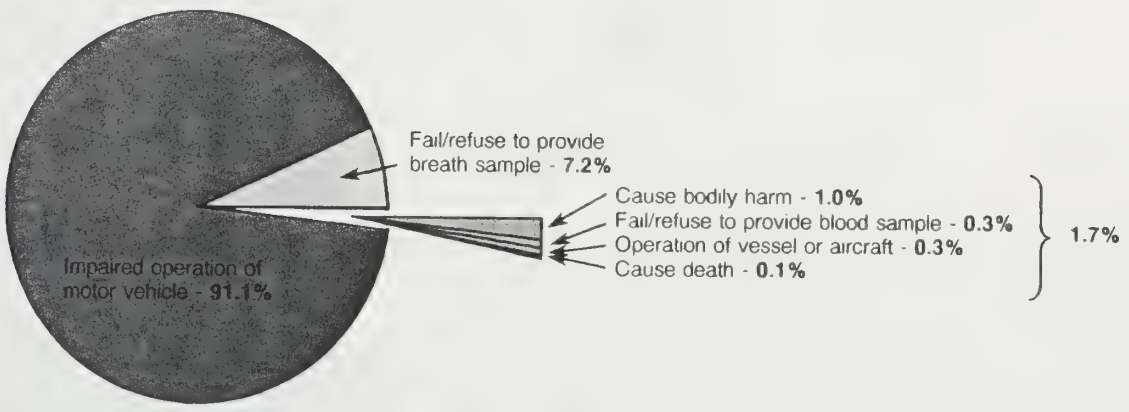


[1] Figures for the period 1974-1985 include driving while impaired and failing or refusing to provide a breath sample. Figures for 1986 and 1987 include operating a motor vehicle, vessel or aircraft while impaired or with more than 80 mgs. of alcohol in the blood, impaired driving causing death or bodily harm; and failing or refusing to provide a breath or blood sample.

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-002, Vol. 8, No. 4

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Persons charged with impaired driving, by type of offence, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-002, Vol. 8, No. 4

failing to provide a blood sample, made up only small proportions of those charged with impaired driving offences.

Provincial rates vary

There is wide variation in the incidence of impaired driving offences across the country. In 1987, the provinces with the highest number of people charged with impaired driving offences per 100,000 residents were Alberta (830), Saskatchewan (821), and Prince Edward Island (765). The figure was also above the national average (500) in New Brunswick (659), Manitoba (600), Nova Scotia (577), and Newfoundland (538), while rates were considerably lower in British Columbia (489), Ontario (412), and Quebec (397). In fact, Quebec and Ontario have consistently reported the lowest impaired driving rates since 1974.

The incidence of impaired driving offences declined in all provinces between 1981 and 1987. The largest decrease occurred in British Columbia where the number of persons charged per 100,000 population fell 46%. There were also large declines in Prince Edward Island (31%), Saskatchewan (28%), Alberta (25%), Newfoundland (25%), Ontario (24%), and Nova Scotia (23%). In comparison, the rate declined 14% in both Quebec and Manitoba and just 6% in New Brunswick.

There were, however, increases in the rate of impaired driving in five of the ten provinces between 1986 and 1987. There was a particularly large increase of 20% in Newfoundland, while there were increases of 4% or less in Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, Quebec, and Saskatchewan.

Urban rates differ

As with the provinces, there is considerable variation in the incidence of impaired driving offences among major urban areas. In 1987, there were particularly large numbers of people charged with impaired driving offences per

The law on impaired driving

As of 1985, impaired driving offences include operating a motor vehicle, vessel, or aircraft while impaired or with more than 80 mgs. of alcohol in the blood; impaired driving causing death or bodily harm; and failing or refusing to provide a breath or blood sample.

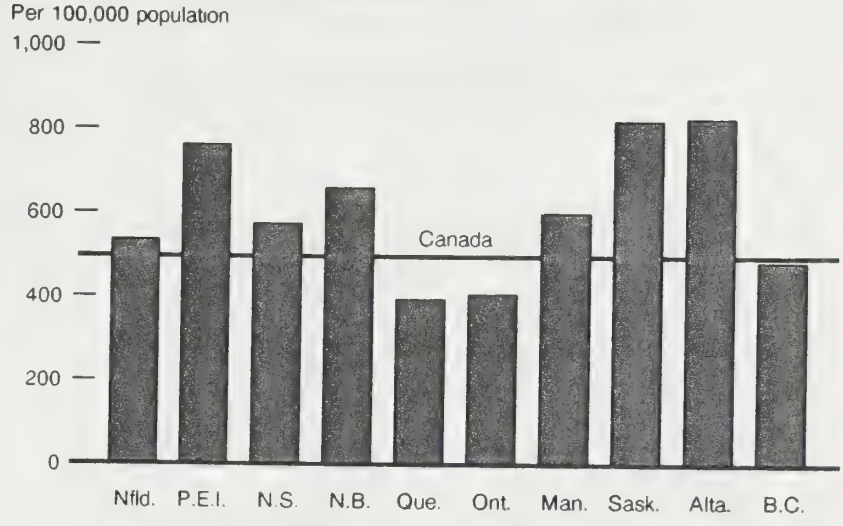
Penalties for driving either while impaired or with more than 80 mgs. of alcohol in the blood, or for failing to provide a breath or blood sample include a minimum $300 fine and 3-month driving prohibition for the first offence; a minimum 14-day prison term and 6-month driving prohibition for the second offence; and a minimum 90-day prison term and 1-year driving prohibition for subsequent offences. The court may require the offender to undergo treatment for alcohol dependency in place of any of the above penalties.

For impaired driving causing bodily harm, the penalties include a maximum 10-year prison term, 10-year driving prohibition, and fine of any amount. Impaired driving causing death brings a maximum penalty of 14 years in prison, a 10-year driving prohibition, and a fine of any amount.

In 1987, approximately 20,000 persons were sentenced to serve time in jail as a result of impaired driving.

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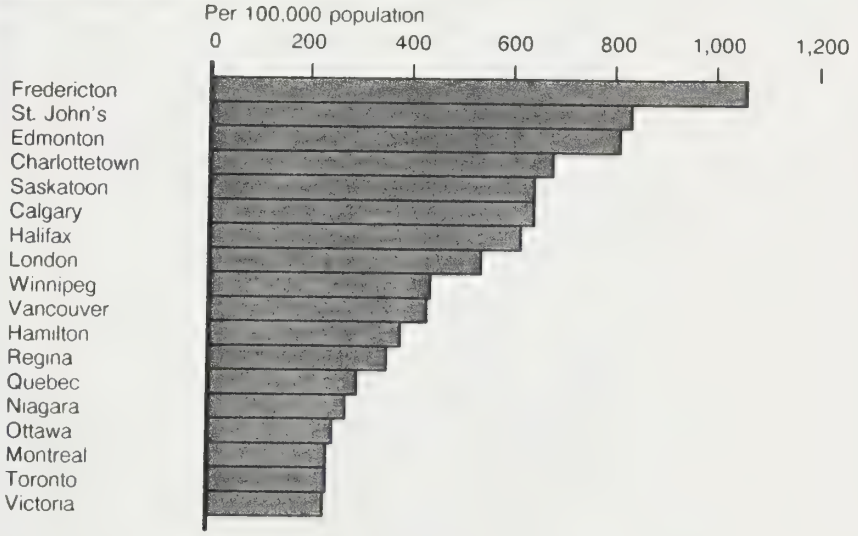
Persons charged with impaired driving offences, by province, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-002, Vol. 8, No. 4.

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Persons charged with impaired driving offences, by selected cities, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 85-002, Vol. 8, No. 4

100,000 population in Fredericton (1,061), St. John's (835), and Edmonton (814). In contrast, there were fewer than 300 persons charged with these offences per 100,000 people in Quebec City, Montreal, Niagara, Ottawa, Toronto, and Victoria.

Who drinks and drives

A significant proportion of Canadians drive after drinking. A 1985 survey conducted by Health and Welfare Canada estimated that 16% of all adults had driven after consuming alcohol at least once in the previous month.

Men are far more likely than women to drive while impaired. The Health and Welfare Canada survey estimated that 25% of men, compared with 8% of women, drove after drinking at least once the previous month. Not surprisingly, men make up the vast majority of people charged with impaired driving. In 1987, for example, 92% of all those charged were male.

Men between the ages of 25 and 44 are the most likely people to drink and drive. In 1985, 35% of men in this age range reported driving after drinking at least once the previous month. In comparison, the figure was around 20% for men aged 15-24 and aged 45-54; 17% for men aged 55-64; and 5% for men aged 65 and over.

Among women, those aged 35-44 were the most likely to drink and drive. In 1985, 11% of these women drove after drinking at least once the previous month, while the figure was 9% for those aged 15-34, and 7% for those aged 45-54.

A large proportion of all impaired driving incidents are accounted for by a small proportion of chronic offenders. In the 1985 Health and Welfare Canada survey, more than half of all drinking and driving incidents were accounted for by less than 3% of adults. These individuals reported driving while impaired on at least five occasions. Specific attention to this group may be a critical step in further reducing the incidence of this offence.

Holly Johnson *is a senior analyst with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada.*

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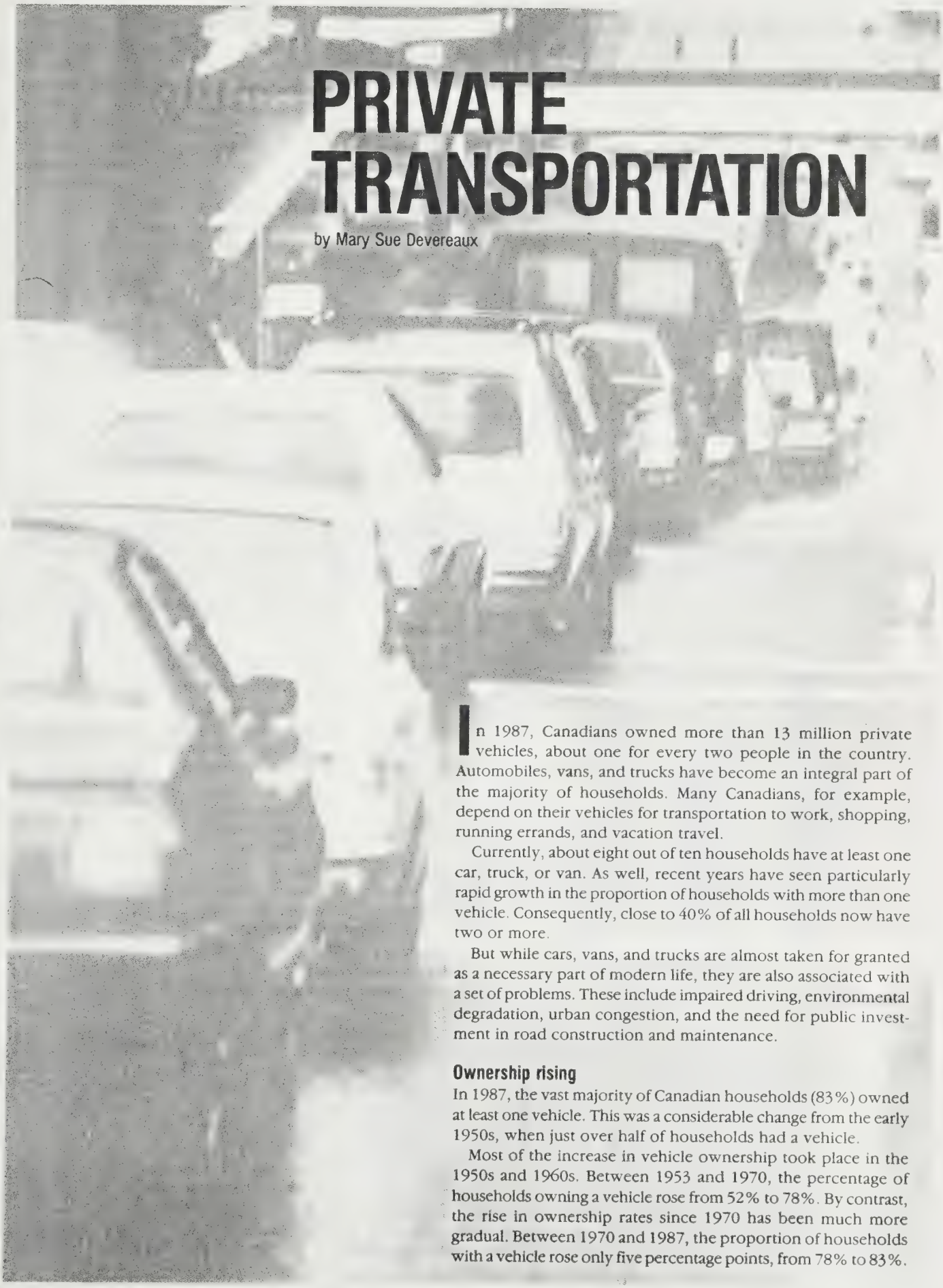
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PRIVATE TRANSPORTATION

by Mary Sue Devereaux



In 1987, Canadians owned more than 13 million private vehicles, about one for every two people in the country. Automobiles, vans, and trucks have become an integral part of the majority of households. Many Canadians, for example, depend on their vehicles for transportation to work, shopping, running errands, and vacation travel.

Currently, about eight out of ten households have at least one car, truck, or van. As well, recent years have seen particularly rapid growth in the proportion of households with more than one vehicle. Consequently, close to 40% of all households now have two or more.

But while cars, vans, and trucks are almost taken for granted as a necessary part of modern life, they are also associated with a set of problems. These include impaired driving, environmental degradation, urban congestion, and the need for public investment in road construction and maintenance.

Ownership rising

In 1987, the vast majority of Canadian households (83%) owned at least one vehicle. This was a considerable change from the early 1950s, when just over half of households had a vehicle.

Most of the increase in vehicle ownership took place in the 1950s and 1960s. Between 1953 and 1970, the percentage of households owning a vehicle rose from 52% to 78%. By contrast, the rise in ownership rates since 1970 has been much more gradual. Between 1970 and 1987, the proportion of households with a vehicle rose only five percentage points, from 78% to 83%.

On the other hand, ownership of more than one vehicle has risen sharply in recent years. In 1987, 39% of all households had two or more vehicles. This was up from 4% in 1953 and 17% in 1970.

Part of the recent growth in vehicle ownership rates is attributable to an increase in the proportion of households with vans and trucks. By 1987, 23% of households owned at least one of these vehicles, a rise from 20% in 1984, the first year for which this information was collected.

Provincial variations

Vehicle ownership rates vary somewhat across the country. In 1987, the proportion of households owning at least one vehicle ranged from 79% in both Newfoundland and Quebec to around 90% in Alberta (90%) and Prince Edward Island (88%). Ownership rates were also above the national average (83%) in British Columbia (87%), Saskatchewan (87%), Manitoba (85%), and New Brunswick (85%). Figures were close to the national level in Nova Scotia (82%) and Ontario (82%).

Provincial variation in the proportion of households with at least two vehicles was more pronounced. In 1987, more than half (53%) of all households in Alberta and Saskatchewan had more than one vehicle. On the other hand, just 29% of those in Newfoundland and Quebec were so equipped.

Provincial differences in the ownership of vans and trucks were also substantial. A relatively large proportion (43%) of Saskatchewan households had vans or trucks, possibly because these vehicles tend to be associated with agriculture, which is a major part of that province's economy. Van and truck ownership rates were also high in Alberta (40%) and Manitoba (32%). By contrast, comparatively few Ontario (18%) and Quebec (14%) households had these vehicles.

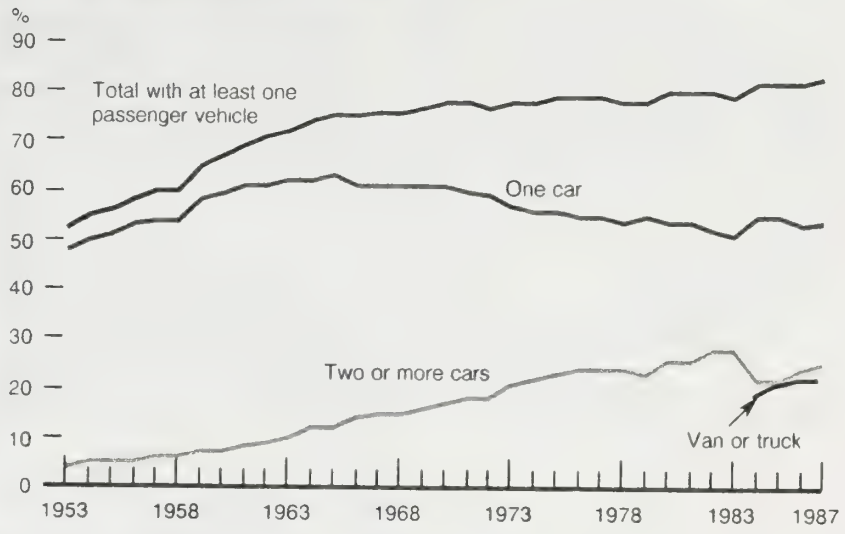
Vehicles more common in rural areas

Perhaps because of factors such as distance, relative isolation, and the lack of public transportation, as well as involvement in agriculture, rural households are more likely than those in large metropolitan areas to own vehicles. In 1987, 92% of rural households had a vehicle of some sort, compared with 80% in big cities.

Multiple-vehicle households were also more common in rural areas; over half (54%) of rural households had at least two vehicles, while the corresponding figure was just 35% in metropolitan areas.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

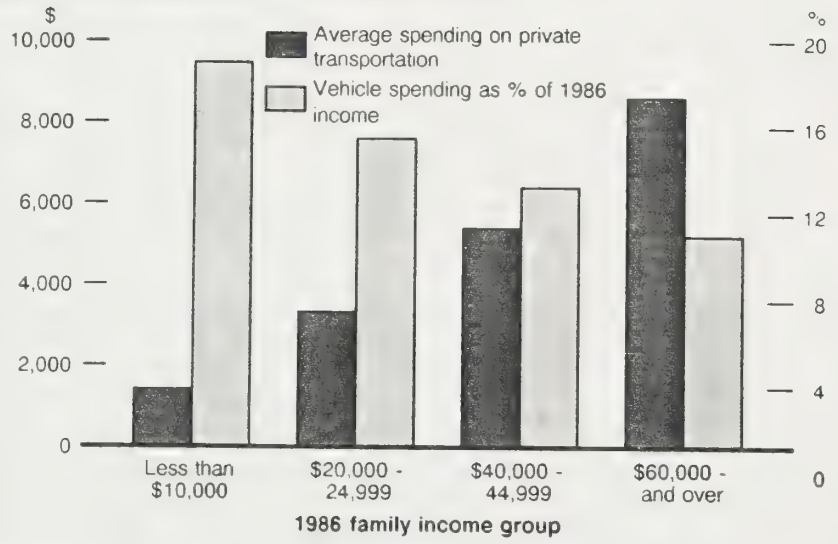
Proportion of households with passenger vehicles, 1953-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 64-202.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Family expenditure on passenger vehicle purchase and operation, by selected 1986 income groups



Source: Statistics Canada, Household Surveys Division, Family Expenditure Surveys Section.

Ownership high for traditional families

Almost all husband-wife families, especially those with children, own vehicles. Fully 95% of husband-wife families with children under age 18 owned at least one vehicle in 1987, and the majority (57%) had two or more.

Vehicle ownership rates were considerably lower among lone-parent families and people who lived alone. For example, 63% of lone-parent families had a vehicle in 1987, while the proportion was 59% for one-person households. Elderly people who lived alone were the least likely to own a vehicle (39%).

Not unexpectedly, vehicle ownership is strongly associated with household income. In 1987, almost all (96%) households with incomes of $55,000 and over had at least one vehicle, and the majority (71%) had two or more. By contrast, fewer than half (46%) of households with incomes below $10,000 had a vehicle.

Spending on private transportation

The amount of money Canadians spend on motor vehicles is substantial. In fact, spending on private transportation, including the costs of buying vehicles, plus expenditures on parts, repairs, and operation, amounted to 11.7% of all personal expenditure in 1986.

Spending on private transportation, however, varies with household income. In 1986, for example, households with incomes over $60,000 that operated vehicles spent an average of almost $8,700 on them, about six times more than the $1,400 spent by comparable households with incomes less than $10,000.

Most of this difference is attributable to the fact that well-to-do households are much more likely than less affluent ones to have purchased a vehicle. Whereas 43% of households with incomes exceeding $60,000 bought a vehicle in 1986, the comparable proportion was just 6% for those with incomes under $10,000.

Nonetheless, vehicle purchase and operation expenditures represented a much larger share of the income of families whose incomes were relatively low than of families at higher income levels. While buying and operating vehicles amounted to 19% of the before-tax income of families in the less-than-$10,000 range, the proportion was only about 10% for families in the $60,000 and over bracket.

A new car

Currently, about one million new cars are purchased in Canada each year. The annual number sold, however, has fluctuated during the 1980s. Sales slumped drastically during the recession in the early years of the decade, dropping from more than a million in 1979 to 713,000 in 1982. A strong rebound in the immediate post-recession period brought total sales to a record 1,137,000 in 1985. In the next two years, though, sales declined, falling to 1,065,000 in 1987.

A growing proportion of automobiles purchased by Canadians are foreign.[1] In 1987, 34% of new cars sold in Canada were imported, up from 19% in 1973. About two-thirds of these foreign cars were from Japan.

As well, buyers paid more for new foreign cars in 1987 than they did for those built in North America. By 1987, the average price paid for North American cars was $14,300, compared with $14,700 for cars from Japan and $17,800 for those built in other foreign countries. This was a change from the early 1970s, when North American cars were more costly than imports.

In 1984 and 1985, the average price of cars imported from countries other than Japan dropped sharply. This decline reflected sales of relatively inexpensive cars from the Republic of Korea. As sales of these Korean vehicles tapered off, the average price of foreign cars increased.

Overall, the average 1987 selling price of a new car was $14,800. In constant 1987 dollars, this was up 18% from 1980.

A spring thing

New-car buying in Canada tends to be seasonal, with people most likely to make a purchase in the spring. In 1987, more than 100,000 new cars were sold each month from March to June; the highest figure (121,000) was reported in April.

By contrast, the number of new cars sold each month from December 1986 to February 1987 did not surpass 70,000. Sales were lowest in January at just 56,500.

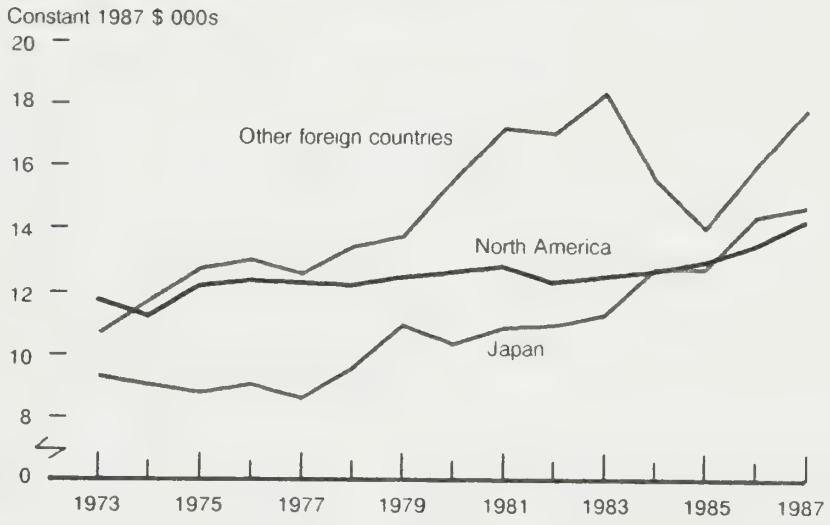
[1] The origin of vehicles is determined by the countries where they are manufactured, not by the company that makes them. Thus, cars made in North America by a foreign company are considered North American, and cars made overseas for a North American manufacturer are considered foreign.

Mary Sue Devereaux *is a Managing Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average price of new cars, by place of manufacture, 1973-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 63-007.

LANGUAGE IN CANADA

by Luc Albert

Census data indicate that there have been several distinct trends in the linguistic make-up of Canada since 1971. Both the proportion of the population in provinces other than Quebec with English mother tongue,[1] and that with French mother tongue in Quebec have risen. As well, bilingualism has become more common, as a growing percentage of Canadians report they are able to conduct a conversation in both official languages.

English increasing outside Quebec

In the last decade and a half, the proportion of Canadians living outside Quebec with English mother tongue has increased. In 1986, 80.0% of people living in provinces other than Quebec reported English as their mother tongue; this was up from 78.4% in 1971 and 79.4% in 1981. During the same period, the proportion of this population with French mother tongue fell from 6.0% in 1971 to 5.0% in 1986.

Other than Quebec, New Brunswick has by far the largest share of its population with French mother tongue. In 1986, 33.5% of residents of this province had French as their mother tongue, down slightly from 34.0% in 1971.

The proportion of people with French mother tongue was much lower in the remaining provinces. The figure was around 5% in Ontario, Manitoba, and Prince Edward Island; 4% in Nova Scotia; 2% in Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia; and just 0.5% in Newfoundland. As well, the percentage of the population with French mother tongue fell in all these provinces between 1971 and 1986.

The proportion of Canadians outside Quebec whose mother tongue was neither English nor French has also declined. In 1986, 14.9% of this population had a mother tongue other than an official language, down from 15.6% in 1971.

There is considerable provincial variation in the percentage of people with a mother tongue other than English or French. In 1986, 22% of Manitoba

[1] Mother tongue is the language first learned and still understood.



residents, along with between 15% and 17% of those in Ontario, British Columbia, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, had a mother tongue other than English or French. In comparison, only 2% of people in Nova Scotia and around 1% of those in the other Atlantic provinces had a mother tongue other than one of the official languages.

Collection of language data

The language questions asked in the last two censuses were the same, but the instructions given to respondents were different. In 1981, respondents were asked to indicate only one mother tongue and one home language. Some people, however, reported more than one. When these responses were processed, only one language was tabulated.

To better reflect the linguistic reality in Canada, respondents to the 1986 Census could report more than one mother tongue if they had both learned these languages at the same time and had spoken them as frequently when they were children. Similarly, respondents could indicate more than one home language if they spoke these languages the same amount at home.

Not surprisingly, the number of multiple language responses was significantly higher in 1986 than in 1981. To facilitate comparison between the two censuses, multiple responses for 1986 were distributed among the component languages in the same proportions as in 1981.

Francophone population increasing in Quebec

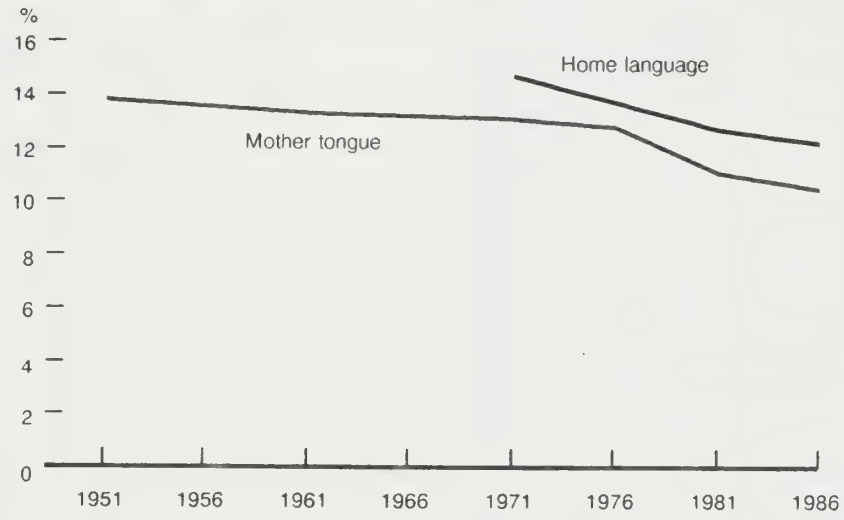
The proportion of Quebec residents with French as their mother tongue has increased steadily in the last decade and a half. In 1986, French was the mother tongue of 82.8% of the people living in this province, up from 80.7% in 1971 and 82.4% in 1981.

There has also been a slight increase in the proportion of Quebec residents reporting a mother tongue other than English or French, from 6.2% in 1971 to 6.8% in 1986. In contrast, the percentage of people in Quebec with English mother tongue fell from 13.1% in 1971 to 10.4% in 1986.

The actual number of people in Quebec with English mother tongue also

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

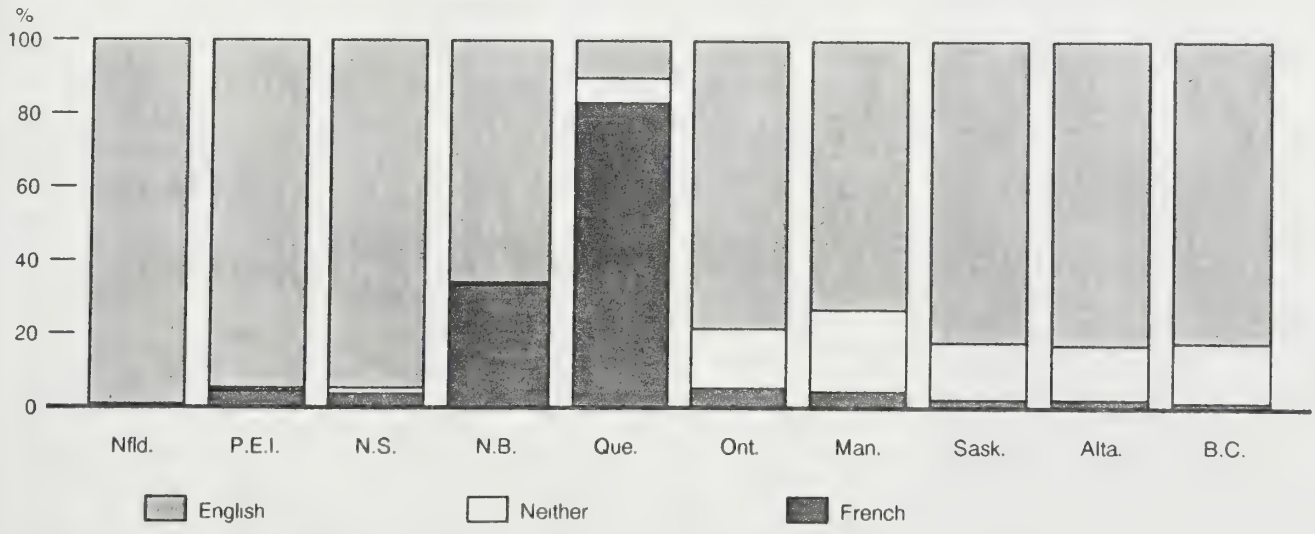
Proportion of Quebec residents with English mother tongue and home language, 1951-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Mother tongue, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

continued to decrease between 1981 and 1986, although the decline was smaller than in the previous five-year period. The number of anglophones in Quebec fell 4% between 1981 and 1986, compared with a 12% decline between 1976 and 1981.

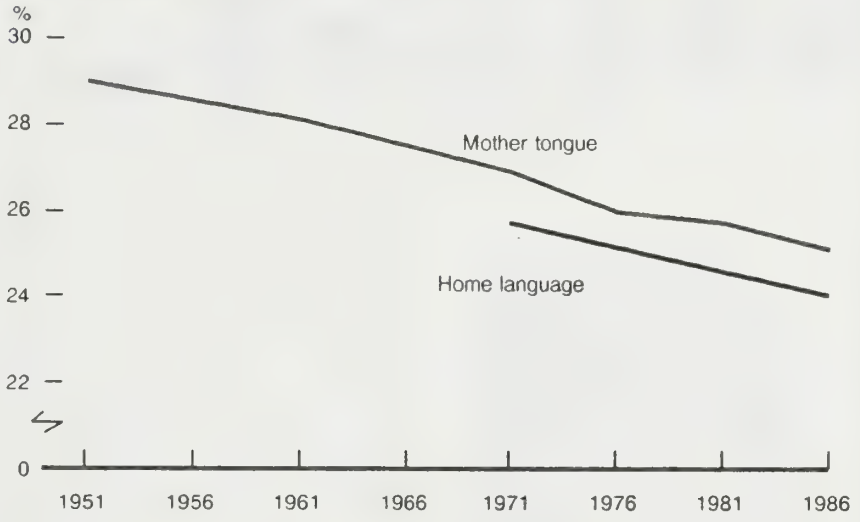
Much of the decline in Quebec's anglophone population is attributable to the fact that the number of these people leaving Quebec for elsewhere in Canada far exceeds the number entering the province from other regions. Between 1981 and 1986, 41,000 more anglophones left Quebec for other parts of Canada than came to Quebec from other provinces. This was down significantly from a net loss of 106,000 during the 1976-1981 period.

English increasing, French declining across Canada

When figures from Quebec and the other provinces are combined, the results show that the proportion of all Canadians with English mother tongue has risen, while the percentage whose mother tongue is French has fallen. Between 1971 and 1986, the percentage of people with English mother tongue rose from 60.2% to 62.1%, while the proportion with

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of Canadians with French mother tongue and home language, 1951-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Proportion of people in provinces outside Quebec with French mother tongue and home language, 1971 and 1986

	French mother tongue		French home language	
	1971	1986	1971	1986
	%			
Newfoundland	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.4
Prince Edward Island	6.6	4.7	3.9	2.8
Nova Scotia	5.0	4.1	3.5	2.9
New Brunswick	34.0	33.5	31.4	31.3
Ontario	6.3	5.3	4.6	3.8
Manitoba	6.1	4.9	4.0	2.8
Saskatchewan	3.4	2.3	1.7	0.9
Alberta	2.9	2.4	1.4	1.1
British Columbia	1.7	1.6	0.5	0.6
Total	**6.0**	**5.0**	**4.3**	**3.6**

Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Language transfers

For some Canadians, their mother tongue is not the language they speak most often at home. Such shifts, which are a major factor in determining the mother tongue of succeeding generations, have contributed to the growth of the English population in Canada. While 62.1% of Canadians reported English as their mother tongue in 1986, a considerably larger proportion, 68.9%, reported that this was the language they spoke most often at home.

Even in Quebec, more people spoke English in their home (12.3%) than learned it as their mother tongue (10.4%). This occurred largely because, in the past, most Quebec residents whose mother tongue was neither French nor English who made language shifts adopted English.[1]

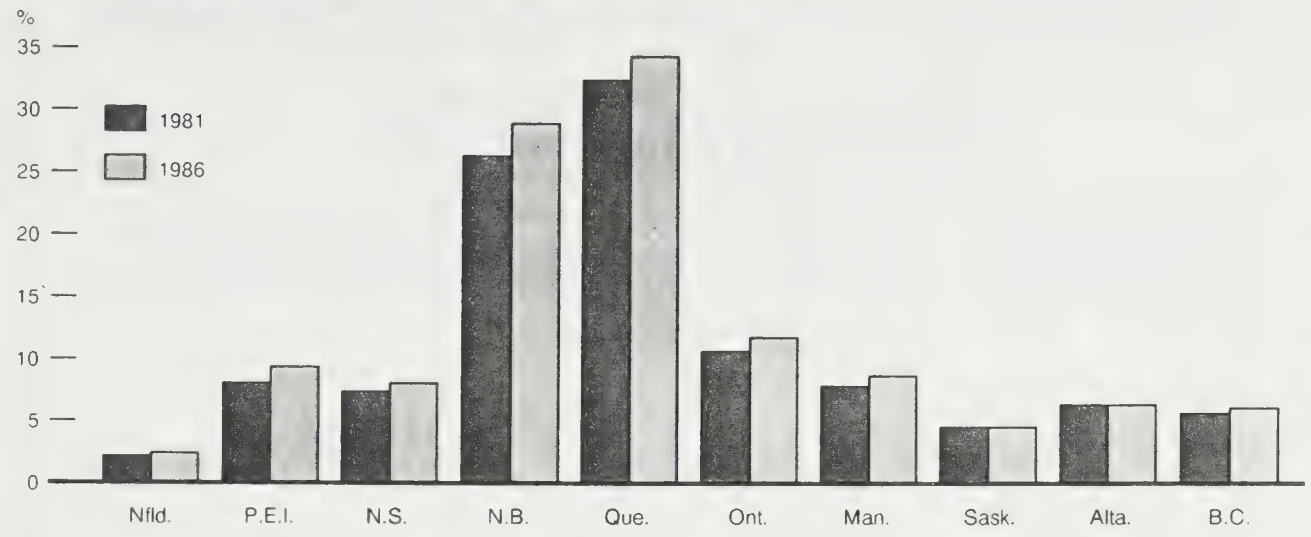
The French-speaking community in Quebec has neither increased nor decreased as a result of language transfers. In fact, in 1986, the proportion of the Quebec population with French mother tongue (82.8%) was the same as that which spoke French most often at home.

Outside Quebec, though, the French-speaking community has declined as a result of language shifts. In 1986, French was the mother tongue of 5.0% of residents of provinces other than Quebec, but only 3.6% of this population reported it as the language they spoke most often at home.

The impact of language transfers in provinces outside Quebec has been greatest in the three westernmost provinces. The francophone population in Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia has declined by over half as a result of language transfers. Such transfers also resulted in substantial proportional declines in the francophone populations in Manitoba, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and Ontario.

[1] A more comprehensive analysis of the 1986 Census is required to determine whether this process continued between 1981 and 1986.

SOCIAL TRENDS **Proportion of people who are bilingual, by province, 1981 and 1986**



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada

French mother tongue declined from 26.9% to 25.1%.

Several factors have contributed to the overall decline in the proportion of Canadians whose mother tongue is French. These factors include low fertility in Quebec, the small proportion of immigrants who speak French, as well as the linguistic assimilation of French-speaking minorities outside Quebec, and the tendency of people with mother tongues other than English or French to adopt the English language.

On the other hand, there has been little overall change in the proportion of Canadians with a mother tongue other than French or English. In the 1971-1986 period, the share of people with another mother tongue remained stable at around 13%.

However, there were changes in the proportion of people with different mother tongues. There was strong growth in the number of people reporting languages associated with the birthplaces of recent immigrants, notably Spanish, and Asiatic languages such as Chinese, Vietnamese, Persian (Farsi), and Tamil. On the other hand, the proportion of people with mother tongues such as German and Ukrainian has fallen.

More Canadians bilingual

In 1986, more than four million Canadians reported they could conduct a conversation in both English and French. That year, 16.2% of the population was bilingual, up from 13.4% in 1971 and 15.3% in 1981.



Quebec has the highest proportion of population which is bilingual. In fact, slightly over half of all Canada's bilingual population in 1986 lived in this province. That year, 34.5% of Quebec residents reported they could conduct a conversation in either official language.

The most bilingual group within Quebec was anglophone. In 1986, more than half (54%) of these people were bilingual, as were almost half (47%) of Quebec residents whose mother tongue was neither English nor French. At the same time, about a third (30%) of Quebec francophones were bilingual.

In contrast, fewer than 6% of people residing outside Quebec with English, or a language other than English or French, as their mother tongue reported they were bilingual in 1986. However, the vast majority of people outside Quebec with French mother tongue were bilingual. In 1986, almost four of every five (79%) of them were able to conduct a conversation in both official languages.

Outside Quebec, the most bilingual province was New Brunswick, where 29.1% of the population reported themselves as able to conduct a conversation in both official languages. In the remaining provinces, the proportion of the population which was bilingual ranged from around 12% in Ontario to less than 3% in Newfoundland.

Between 1981 and 1986, bilingualism increased in all provinces except Alberta, where the proportion reporting they were able to converse in both official languages was unchanged.

Youth more bilingual

Young Canadians are generally more likely than older people to be bilingual. In 1986, 20.5% of the population aged 15-24 could conduct a conversation in either English or French; this compared with 19.9% of those aged 25-44, 16.8% of those aged 45-64, and 12.4% of people aged 65 and over. This suggests that French immersion programs in Canadian schools have contributed to the growth of bilingualism.

Luc Albert *is a senior analyst with the Household, Family, and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

WOMEN IN PROFESSIONAL OCCUPATIONS: PROGRESS IN THE 1980s

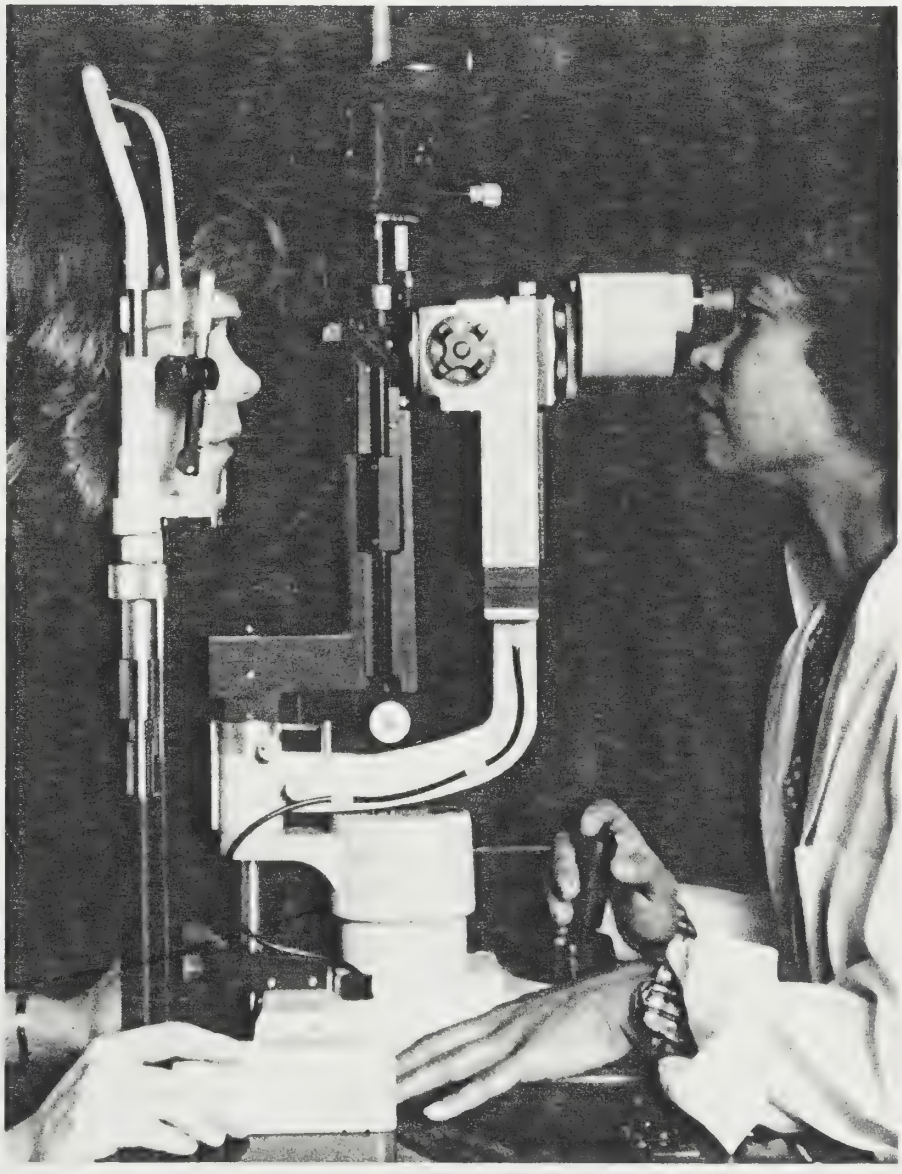
by Katherine Marshall

One of the most fundamental changes in Canadian society over the past several decades has been the increased labour force participation of women. An important aspect of this trend has been the growing number of women employed in professional occupations.[1]

Women have made particularly substantial inroads into what have traditionally been male-dominated professions.[2] In fact, by 1986, the number of women employed in several of these occupations had grown such that the professions could no longer be considered male-dominated. Nonetheless, women continue to be significantly under-represented in most professions that have traditionally been male-dominated.

There are also differences in some of the employment characteristics of women and men in the professions. For example, the average income of women in professional occupations is considerably below that of comparable men, and there has been no reduction in the gap in recent years.

In addition, many of the family characteristics of women employed in professional occupations differ from those of other women and male professionals.



[1] Professional occupations are those in which 45% or more of people employed in that occupation in 1981 had at least a bachelor's degree. Overall, 46 occupational groups were classified as professional.

[2] A profession was considered male-dominated if 65% or more of the people employed in it in 1971 were men. Based on this criterion, 34 professions were classified as male-dominated.

These differences are especially pronounced among women in male-dominated professions, who are less likely than others to be part of a family, or if married, to have children.

Most new professionals women

Women were responsible for slightly more than two-thirds of all employment growth in professional occupations between 1981 and 1986. In this period, the number of women employed in the professions rose 18%, from 383,000 to 453,000. In comparison, the number of male professionals increased just 6%. As a result, in 1986, 45.1% of all professionals were women, up from 42.5% in 1981.

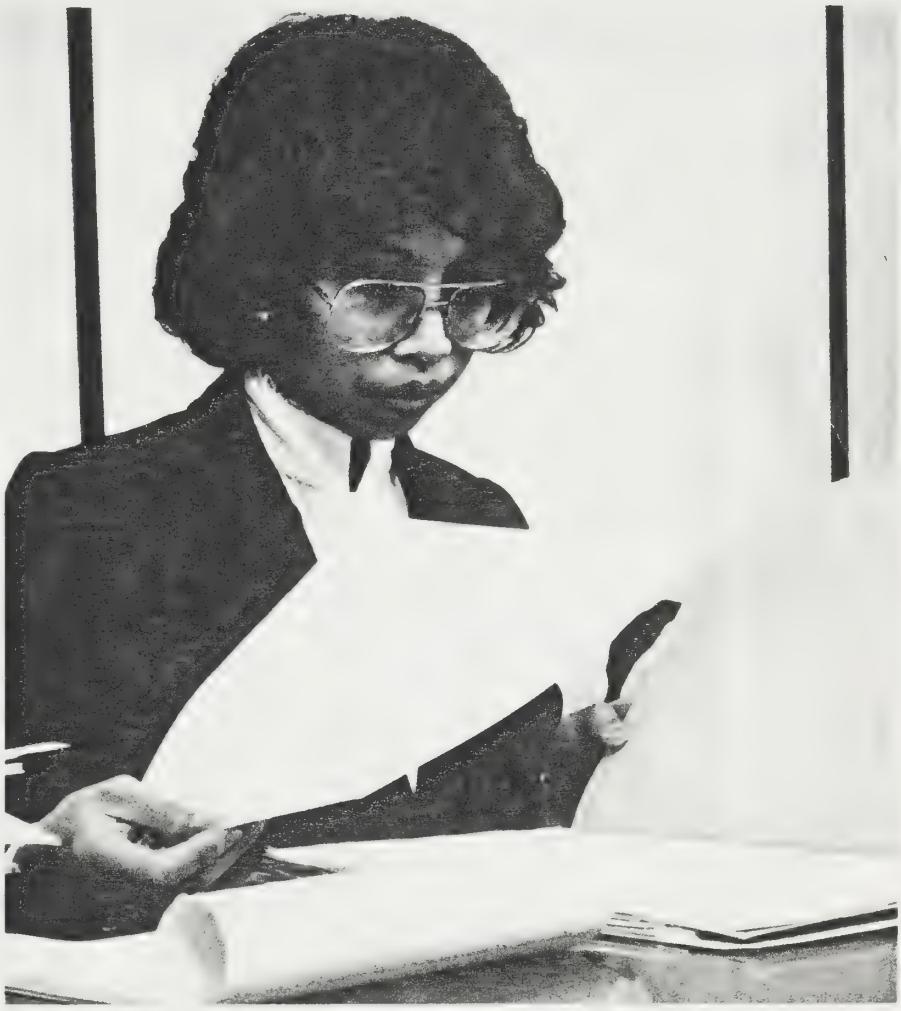
Rapid growth in male-dominated professions

There has been a particularly large increase in women's participation in male-dominated professions in recent years. The number of women in these professions rose 42% between 1981 and 1986, from around 83,000 to just over 118,000. Meanwhile, the number of men in these professions increased just 9%. Still, in 1986, women made up only 23% of those employed in male-dominated professions, though this was up from 11% in 1971 and 19% in 1981.

Between 1981 and 1986, women's share of employment increased in all but one of the male-dominated professions. In fact, in more than half of these occupations, women accounted for the majority of employment growth, and in several, almost all growth was attributable to women.

Women were responsible for all employment growth among veterinarians between 1981 and 1986, as the number of women in this field increased about one and a half times, while the number of men actually declined slightly. Somewhat the same pattern occurred among sociologists and anthropologists. As well, women accounted for 91% of employment growth among pharmacists in this period, while the figure was 87% for optometrists, 86% for managers in the social sciences, 81% for biologists, and 77% for administrators in teaching.

As a result, women's share of employment in these professions increased dramatically. The percentage of veterinarians who were women doubled from 17% in 1981 to 35% in 1986, while the figure among optometrists rose from 18% to 32%. There were also increases from 48% to 58% for managers in the social sciences, from 39% to 48% for sociologists and anthropologists, from 42% to 50% for pharmacists, from 25% to 31% for administrators in teaching, and from 32% to 37% for biologists.



Women's share of employment also rose significantly among economists, chemists, and agriculturists in the 1981-1986 period.

Because of these trends, a number of professions can no longer be considered male-dominated. In 1986, women actually outnumbered men among both pharmacists and managers in the social sciences. As well, they made up over 35% of those employed in six other professional groups identified as male-dominated in 1971. These included sociologists and anthropologists, mathematicians and statisticians, veterinarians, biologists, community college teachers, and university instructors such as non-tenured professors and lecturers, and teaching and laboratory assistants.

Women also continued to make steady gains in the more high-profile professions such as medicine, dentistry, and law, accounting for close to half the employment growth in each between 1981 and 1986. As a result, women's share of employment rose from 17% to 21% among doctors, from 8% to 14% among dentists, and from 16% to 22% among lawyers.

Women also made up almost half the increase in the number of university professors in the 1981-1986 period. However, because overall employment growth in this profession was relatively slow, the proportional representation of women in this field increased only slightly.

A number of professions continue to be heavily male-dominated, with women still representing less than 10% of total employment in ten of the 34 professions identified as male-dominated in 1971.

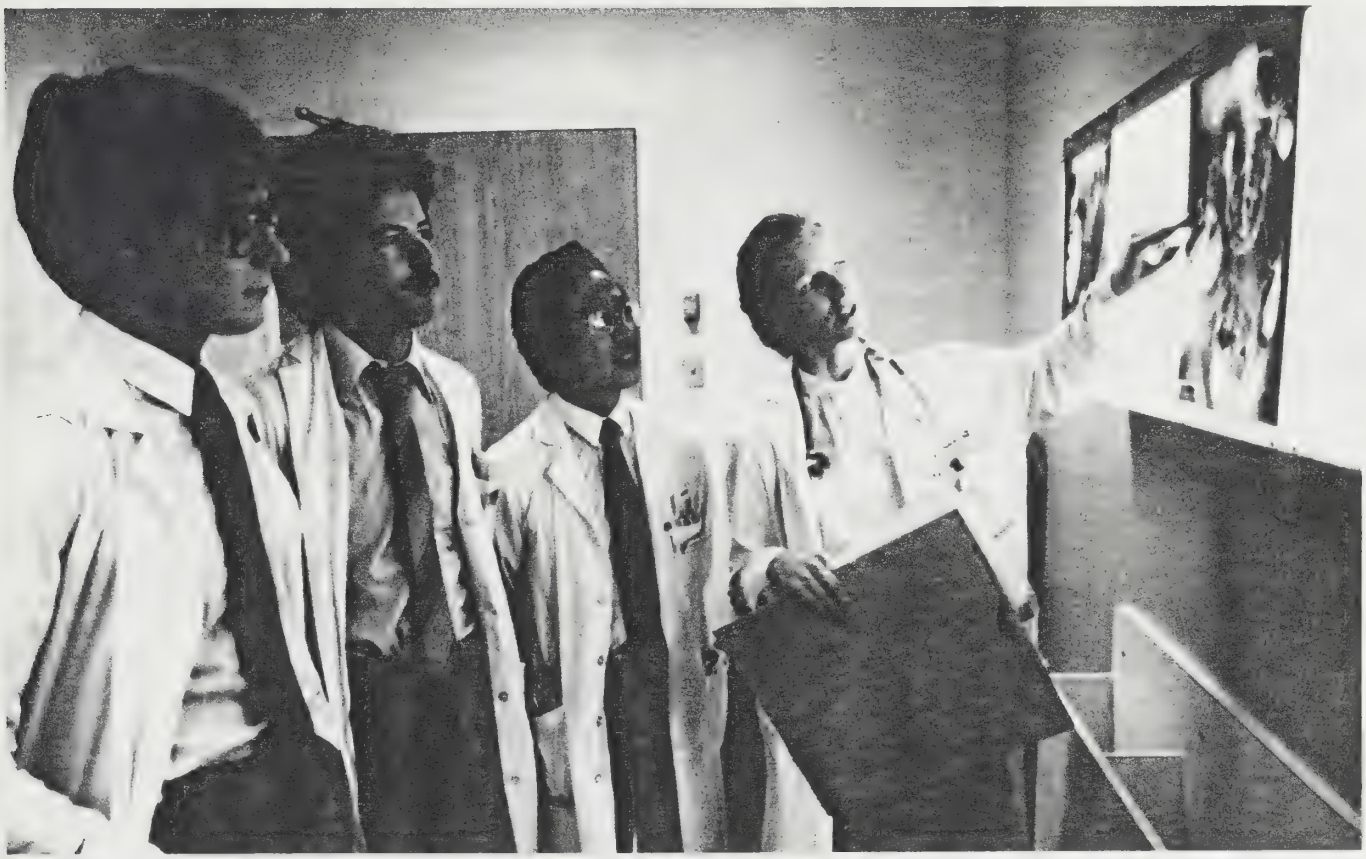
A particularly small proportion of people employed in engineering are women. In 1986, only 5% of all engineers were women, although this was up from 3% in 1981.

Women also made up only 9% of managers in the natural sciences and just 8% of physicists in 1986, though, as with engineering, these figures were up slightly from 1981. In addition, just over 10% of architects, meteorologists, geologists, ministers, and judges and magistrates in 1986 were women.

Women employed in professional occupations, 1971-1986

	Total number of women			Percentage increase 1981-1986	Women as a % of total growth in profession 1981-1986	Women as a % of total employment in profession	
	1971	1981	1986			1981	1986
Male-dominated professions							
Management occupations, natural sciences and engineering	70	800	1,225	53.1	23.8	6.6	8.8
Management occupations, social sciences and related fields	760	3,805	6,090	60.1	85.9	48.2	57.7
Administrators in teaching and related fields	6,445	9,120	12,425	36.2	76.7	25.0	30.5
Chemists	895	1,975	3,080	55.9	63.5	20.4	27.0
Geologists	145	795	1,005	26.4	35.6	10.3	12.1
Physicists	45	65	95	46.2	*	5.0	7.9
Meteorologists	40	90	120	33.3	24.0	9.0	10.7
Agriculturists and related scientists	330	1,220	2,420	98.4	37.6	13.2	19.5
Biologists and related scientists	830	2,330	3,000	28.8	80.7	31.9	36.9
Architects	125	560	850	51.8	48.7	7.7	10.8
Chemical engineers	65	340	560	64.7	62.9	5.9	9.2
Civil engineers	235	980	1,490	52.0	*	3.0	4.6
Electrical engineers	205	1,000	1,655	65.5	14.4	3.7	5.2
Mechanical engineers	100	380	710	86.8	8.6	1.9	3.0
Metallurgical engineers	15	50	100	100.0	*	2.8	6.1
Mining engineers	20	105	155	47.6	*	2.9	4.3
Petroleum engineers	15	225	285	26.7	*	1.1	6.5
Nuclear engineers	--	40	70	75.0	*	4.8	9.5
Other architects and engineers	140	1,640	2,640	61.0	36.8	12.2	16.3
Mathematicians, statisticians, and actuaries	1,010	2,070	2,305	11.4	54.0	34.7	36.0
Economists	640	2,570	4,345	69.1	62.2	20.5	28.3
Sociologists, anthropologists, and related social scientists	170	540	685	26.9	290.0	39.0	47.7
Judges and magistrates	75	220	320	45.5	27.4	10.5	12.0
Lawyers and notaries	860	5,390	9,410	74.6	51.2	15.5	22.0
Ministers of religion	900	1,785	2,590	45.1	65.7	7.6	10.5
University teachers	5,190	9,785	11,470	17.2	48.7	26.5	28.4
Other university teaching and related occupations	1,525	6,170	8,640	40.0	44.1	45.8	45.3
Community college and vocational school teachers	3,280	13,770	16,945	23.1	57.1	41.6	43.8
Physicians and surgeons	3,150	7,255	10,175	40.2	47.3	17.4	21.2
Dentists	330	860	1,670	94.2	44.1	8.1	13.5
Veterinarians	75	605	1,510	149.6	114.6	17.2	35.1
Osteopaths and chiropractors	80	340	520	52.9	25.7	14.9	17.5
Pharmacists	2,540	6,090	8,755	43.8	91.1	41.8	50.1
Optometrists	105	365	840	130.1	87.2	17.7	32.2
Total male-dominated professions	**30,410**	**83,340**	**118,155**	**41.8**	**52.1**	**18.6**	**22.9**
Other professions							
Psychologists	2,035	4,600	7,075	53.8	79.6	52.6	59.7
Social workers	7,230	21,020	31,005	47.5	78.5	63.5	67.7
Supervisors in library, museum, and archival sciences	600	1,440	1,700	18.1	85.2	62.1	64.8
Librarians and archivists	6,120	13,575	15,315	12.8	80.6	80.9	80.9
Educational and vocational counsellors	1,690	3,050	4,285	40.5	84.0	49.3	55.9
Elementary and kindergarten teachers	140,500	152,335	163,505	7.3	79.0	81.5	81.3
Secondary school teachers	56,615	63,320	62,745	−0.9	*	43.8	45.7
Postsecondary school teachers	5,730	4,445	3,850	−13.4	*	63.9	74.1
Teachers of exceptional students	4,420	15,315	18,710	22.2	97.7	72.1	75.7
Physiotherapists, occupational and other therapists	5,895	12,525	16,855	34.6	86.0	85.0	85.2
Dietitians and nutritionists	2,010	3,280	4,250	29.6	100.0	94.3	95.5
Translators and interpreters	1,395	4,340	5,175	19.2	92.8	61.9	65.4
Total other professions	**234,240**	**299,250**	**334,470**	**11.8**	**9.7**	**66.2**	**68.6**
Total all professions	**264,650**	**382,590**	**452,610**	**18.3**	**68.5**	**42.5**	**45.1**

* Total employment in this profession declined between 1981 and 1986.
-- Amount too small to be expressed.
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.



Women in other professions

Women's share of total employment in the 12 professions not classified as male-dominated also has risen. In 1986, 68.6% of people employed in these professions were women, up from 66.2% in 1981. This increase is a change from the 1971-1981 period when women's representation in these professions declined slightly.

However, the proportion of all female professionals working in the non-male-dominated sector has fallen. In 1986, 74% of professional women were in non-male-dominated occupations, down from 78% in 1981. This occurred largely because overall employment growth in these other professions was considerably slower than in the male-dominated sector. Between 1981 and 1986, total employment in the male-dominated professions increased 15%, compared with just an 8% rise in the other professions.

The slow overall employment growth in the non-male-dominated professions was largely attributable to slow growth in education. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of teachers increased only 2%, compared with a 29% rise in employment in other non-male-dominated professions.

As a result, the proportion of all female professionals in teaching-related professions has declined substantially, although teaching still accounts for more than half of all professional women. In 1986, 55% of women in professional occupations were teachers, down significantly from 79% in 1971 and 62% in 1981.

Women make up well over half of those employed in all but one of the non-male-dominated professions. The exception was secondary school teachers, just under half (46%) of whom were women. In the remaining occupations, women's share of employment ranged from 56% of educational and vocational counsellors to 96% of dietitians and nutritionists.

Professional income: women still make less

Women in professional occupations have considerably higher employment incomes than other women. However, their average incomes remain well below those of comparable men, and the gap has not closed in recent years.

In 1986, the average employment income of women in male-dominated professions was almost $35,000, while those in the other professions made just over $30,000. In comparison, the figure for other women was under $20,000.

However, the average employment income of women working full-time in a male-dominated profession was just 71% that of comparable men, while the figure was 83% in the other professions. As well, for both groups, the ratios were virtually unchanged from 1981.

Part of the difference in the employment income of women and men in professional occupations occurs because women tend to be younger, and as a result, have less seniority and lower earnings. Even so, women aged 25-34 in male-dominated professions had an average employment income that was only 81% that of their male counterparts in 1986.

Family and career

Working in the professions often involves considerable commitment and a demanding work schedule. As a result, many women entering these fields have different characteristics than other women and men in terms of blending family and career responsibilities. This is particularly true for women employed in male-dominated professions.

For example, in 1986, 24% of women aged 25 and over in male-dominated professions and 19% of those in other professions did not live in a family. In comparison, the figure was around 15% for both other women and men in the professions. Similarly, just 63% of married women in male-dominated professions had children, compared with over 70% of other women and male professionals.

Katherine Marshall *is an analyst with the Toronto Regional Office, Statistics Canada*



SELF-EMPLOYMENT IN CANADA

by Gary L. Cohen

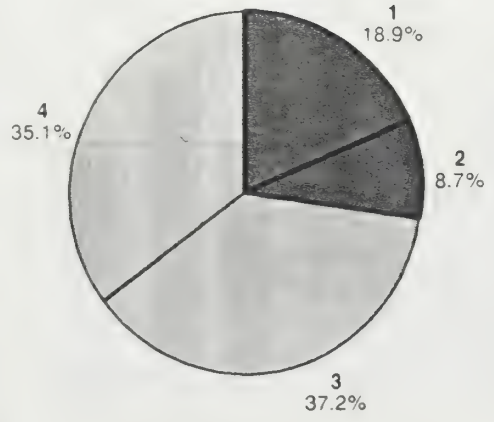
The self-employed[1] make up a vital and growing segment of the labour market in Canada; in fact, the rise in their numbers has been a major component of employment growth over the last decade.

Between 1975 and 1987, the total number of self-employed people in Canada rose 60%, from 1.0 to 1.6 million. In the same period, the number of paid workers rose only 26%, from 8.1 to 10.2 million. Overall, the growth in the number of self-employed persons represented almost a quarter (23%) of total employment growth in this period. As a result, in

[1] The self-employed include primarily those people who own and operate an incorporated or unincorporated business, farm, or professional practice. The self-employed also include some people who do not own a business, for example, independent salespersons and babysitters. On the other hand, a person who owns a business, but does not operate it, is considered to be an investor and not self-employed.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

The self-employed, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey.

1987, almost one out of every seven workers (14%) in Canada was self-employed, up from one in nine (11%) in 1975.

Just over half (54%) of the self-employed are own-account workers, that is, they do not usually employ paid help. The remaining 46% are employers.

However, the number of employers rose somewhat faster than the number of own-account workers in the last decade. From 1975 to 1987, the number of employers increased 73%, compared with a 50% rise among own-account workers.

Industry patterns vary

There is considerable variation in the incidence of self-employment by industry. Self-employment is most prevalent in fishing and trapping industries, where it makes up 66% of employment, and in agriculture, where 50% of workers are self-employed. Self-employment is also a major component of total employment in other services, including amusement and recreational services and personal and household services (34%), construction (28%), and business services (24%). As well, 22% of real estate operators and insurance agents are self-employed. On the other hand, self-employment is much less prevalent in manufacturing (4%), mining (3%), communications (3%), education services (2%), and finance and insurance industries (1%).

However, because total employment differs widely by industry (for example, there are more than two million workers in wholesale and retail trade, but fewer than 40,000 in fishing and trapping industries), the majority of self-employed workers are actually concentrated in just four industries. In 1987, almost two thirds of the self-employed worked in either trade industries (21%), other services (17%), agriculture (16%), or construction (12%).

Men more likely to be self-employed

Men are more likely than women to be self-employed, although the number of self-employed women has increased more rapidly than the number of self-employed men in the last decade. In 1987, 17% of all employed men were self-employed, whereas self-employed women made up only 9% of all employed women.

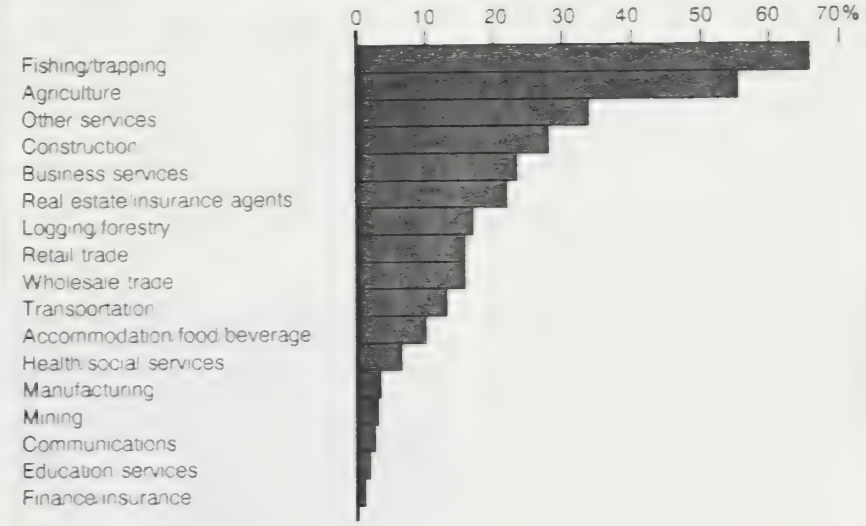
From 1975 to 1987, however, the number of self-employed women rose more than three times faster than the number of self-employed men. During this period, the number of self-employed women increased 135%, while the number of self-employed men rose just 42%. As a result, in 1987, women made up 28% of all self-employed workers, up from 19% in 1975.

There are also differences in the type of self-employment of men and women. For example, self-employed men are much more likely to be employers than are self-employed women. In 1987, about half (51%) of self-employed men were employers, compared with only about a third (31%) of self-employed women.

As well, there are differences in the industries in which self-employed men and women are concentrated. Both sexes are strongly represented in the trade industries; in 1987, 21% of both self-employed men and women worked in wholesale or retail trade. However, about 40% of self-employed women worked in other services, mainly personal and household services, whereas more than a third (35%) of self-employed men were in either agriculture or construction.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

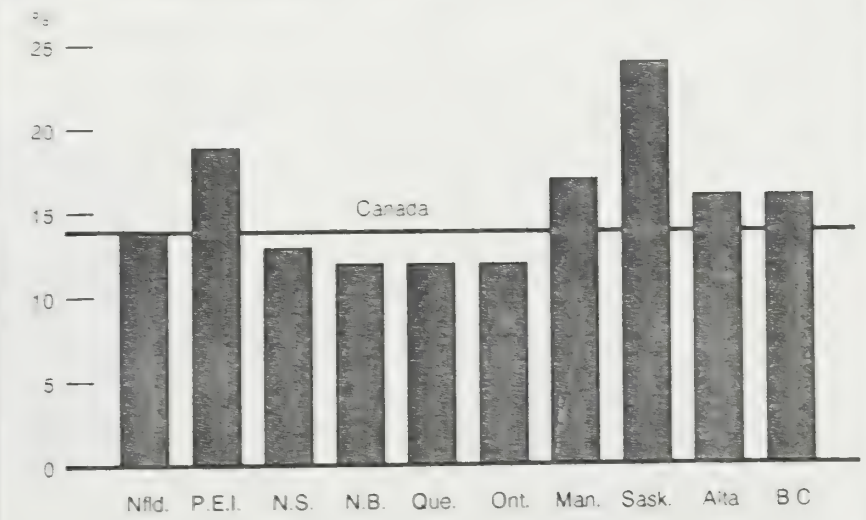
Self-employed as percentage of all workers, by industry, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Self-employed as percentage of all workers, by province, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

Older workers predominate

Older workers are generally more likely than younger workers to be self-employed. In 1987, nearly half (48%) of all workers aged 65 and over, and 20% of those aged 45-64, were self-employed. In comparison, the figure was 13% for workers aged 25-44 and just 5% for those aged 15-24.

This age pattern likely reflects the fact that the experiences, skills, resources, and opportunities necessary for self-employment are more readily available to older workers. The high incidence of self-employment among older workers also reflects the fact that most paid workers have retired by age 65.

Provinces differ

The proportion of workers who are self-employed varies substantially by province. In 1987, self-employment was most prevalent in Saskatchewan, where 24% of all workers were self-employed. This high rate of self-employment reflects the importance of agriculture in Saskatchewan.

High rates of self-employment also occurred in Prince Edward Island (19%), Manitoba (17%), Alberta (16%), and British Columbia (16%). On the other hand, only about 12% of the work forces in New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario were self-employed, while the figure was 13% in Nova Scotia and 14% in Newfoundland.

Urban/rural differences

People who live in metropolitan areas are somewhat less likely to be self-employed than those who live in smaller urban centres or rural areas. In 1987, 11% of workers in metropolitan areas were classified as self-employed, whereas in non-metropolitan areas, 13% of non-agricultural workers and 18% of all workers were self-employed.

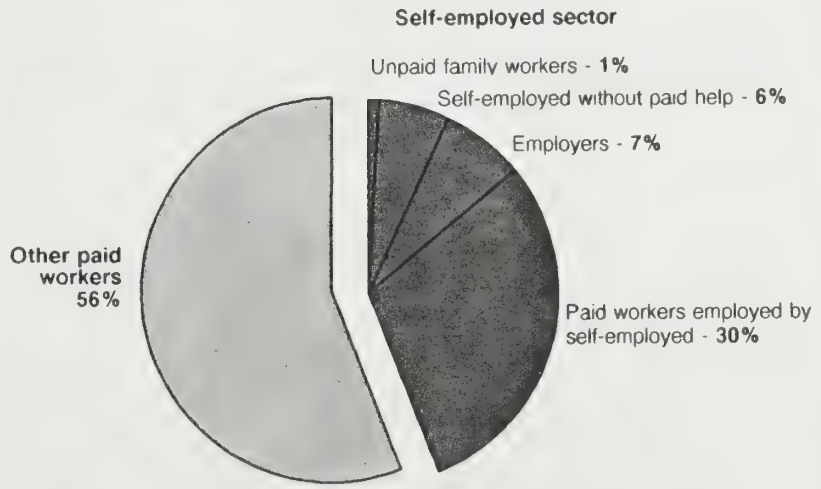
Self-employment is relatively more common in smaller urban centres and rural areas because it is most typically associated with small business and farming endeavours, activities that generally form a more prominent part of the labour market in these areas.

The self-employed sector

In November 1986, 44% of all Canadian workers were in the self-employment sector of the labour market. They included those who were employers, the paid workers they employ, self-employed persons without paid help, and unpaid family workers. The remaining 56% of the work force was made up of paid workers employed by firms with widely-held ownership or in which the owner did not operate the business, and public sector workers, including those in government and in education and health institutions.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

The self-employment sector, November 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-535, No.3

Work schedules

For both men and women, employers are more likely than either paid workers or own-account workers to work full-time, that is, to usually work 30 or more hours per week. Among men, in 1987, 98% of employers worked full-time, compared with 92% of paid workers and 88% of own-account workers.

The difference was even more pronounced among women. In 1987, 83% of female employers worked full-time, compared with 76% of paid workers and just 56% of own-account workers.

In addition, among full-time workers, the self-employed put in substantially longer hours than paid workers. In 1987, self-employed full-time workers worked an average of 45.8 hours per week, compared with 36.3 hours for paid workers.

On the other hand, self-employed part-time workers worked fewer average hours per week than paid workers: 11.4 hours compared with 15.2.

Job tenure

Self-employed workers have higher levels of job tenure than paid workers as they generally have been with the same business longer.[2] In 1987, average job tenure was 11.8 years for self-employed men and 6.4 years for self-employed women. By comparison, the average tenure of paid workers was 7.8 years for men and 5.7 years for women.

Multiple jobholding

Self-employment is especially prevalent among people who have two or more jobs or businesses at the same time. In 1987, there were 494,000 multiple jobholders in Canada, nearly half (46%) of whom were self-employed in at least one of their jobs.

[2] Job tenure for paid workers measures the period of time with the same employer, although not necessarily in the same job. Self-employed persons with a business maintain their tenure as long as they consider that their business has not been formally closed, even though it may not currently be active. On the other hand, those own-account workers, such as babysitters, who do not own a business break their "tenure chain" whenever they cease work.

Gary L. Cohen *is a senior analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

- For more information on this topic see: *Enterprising Canadians: The Self-employed in Canada*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-536.

THE SERVICE SECTOR IN THE 1980s

by Colin Lindsay



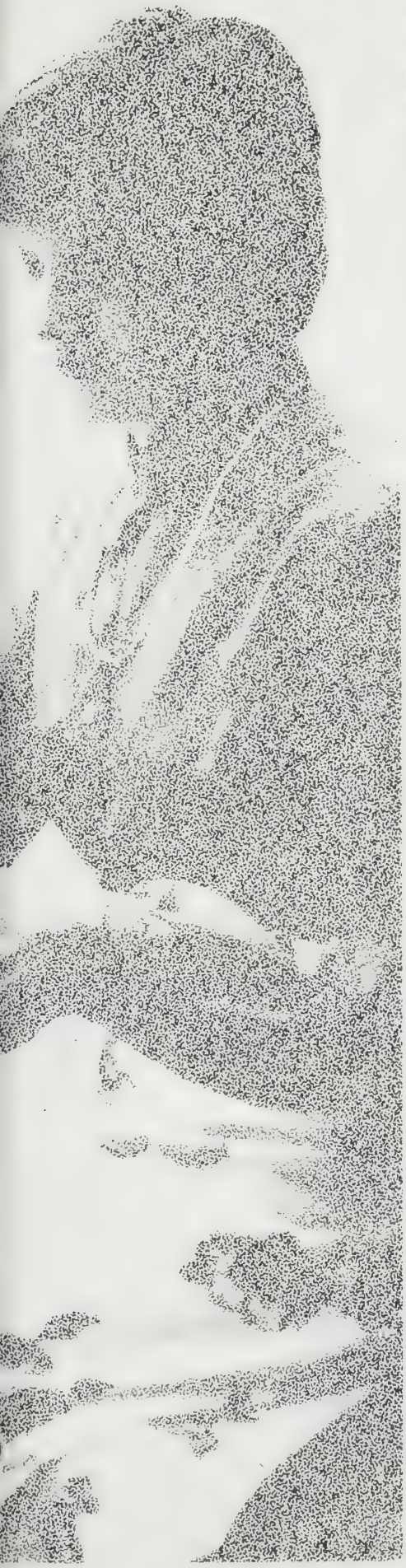
The postwar period has been characterized by dramatic growth in the share of employment accounted for by service sector workers. While some Canadians regard service sector jobs as being inferior to those in the goods-producing sector, the service sector includes a wide variety of career-oriented occupations in the professions, education, business, and government.

Service sector growth in the 1980s

In 1987, 71% of all employment in Canada was in the service sector, up from 67% in 1980. This also represents a major change from the early 1950s, when less than half of all employment was in this sector.

The increase in the share of total employment in the service sector in the 1980s occurred because of significant growth in employment in this sector, combined with a small decline in employment in the goods-producing sector. Between 1980 and 1987, total service sector employment rose 18%, while the number of people employed in the goods-producing sector declined 1%.

The lack of growth in the goods-producing sector in the 1980s was attributable largely to the effect of the 1981-82 recession on employment, which was much greater in this sector than in the service industries. Between 1981 and 1983, service sector employment rose, albeit by only 1%, whereas employment in the goods-producing sector fell 10%.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Employment, by sector, 1975-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001 and 71-529.

Employment has grown in both sectors since the end of the recession, with service sector growth slightly outpacing that in the goods-producing sector. Between 1983 and 1987, employment rose 13% in the service sector and 9% in the goods-producing industries.

Service sector jobs changing

The majority of people working in the service sector are employed in clerical, sales, or service jobs. However, the proportion of service sector workers in these occupations has fallen in the 1980s, while that in managerial and professional positions has risen.

In 1987, 50% of all service workers were in clerical (20%), sales (13%), or service (18%) jobs. This was down, however, from 54% in 1980. Over the same period, the proportion of service workers in managerial or professional occupations rose from 29% to 35%.

Different industries growing

There was considerable variation in growth rates of different industries within the service sector. Increases were particularly large in the number of people providing services to business management and in employment in health and welfare services. Employment in services to business, such as accounting, engineering, and legal and management consulting, rose 38% between 1980 and 1987. In the same period, the number of people working in health and welfare services rose 33%.

Employment in consumer services, such as accommodation and food, amusement and recreation, and personal services, also rose substantially. The number of people working in each of these industries was up more than 20% over the 1980-1987 period.

Employment growth was somewhat slower in education, wholesale and retail trade, and finance, insurance and real estate. The number of people employed in these industries rose by around 15% between 1980 and 1987.

For the purpose of this review, the economy is divided into two main components, the service sector and the goods-producing sector.

The service sector includes distributive services such as transportation and storage, communications, utilities, and wholesale and retail trade; consumer services such as accommodation and food services, personal services, and amusement and recreational services; producer services such as services to business management, and finance, insurance and real estate; and non-commercial services such as education, health and welfare services, religious organizations, and public administration.

The goods-producing sector includes agriculture, manufacturing, construction, mining, forestry, and fishing.

On the other hand, there was only a 10% increase in the number of people working in public administration. Employment growth in federal public administration was particularly slow. Between 1980 and 1987, the number of people employed in federal public administration increased by just 5%. As a result of this slow growth, federal public administration's share of all employment in Canada declined from 2.5% in 1980 to 2.3% in 1987.

Employment in local and provincial administration grew at a somewhat faster rate than did federal public administration. However, at around 12% for each, growth in these industries was still below that for the service sector overall.

Women majority in service sector

Women make up the majority of service sector workers in Canada. In 1987, 51% of people employed in this sector were women; in contrast, women made up just 23% of goods-producing workers. A clear majority of both men and women, though, work in the service sector. In 1987, 84% of women with jobs outside the home and 61% of all male workers were employed in this sector.

There are significant differences in the types of service jobs held by men and women. In 1987, 63% of female service workers compared with 37% of men were in clerical, sales, or service occupations. In fact, almost one in three (31%) female service sector workers compared with just 8% of men was in a clerical position.

Overall, there was little difference in the proportion of male and female service sector workers with managerial and professional jobs. In 1987, 36% of men and 34% of women held such positions. However, within this category, a greater proportion of women than men were in professions such as nursing and teaching.

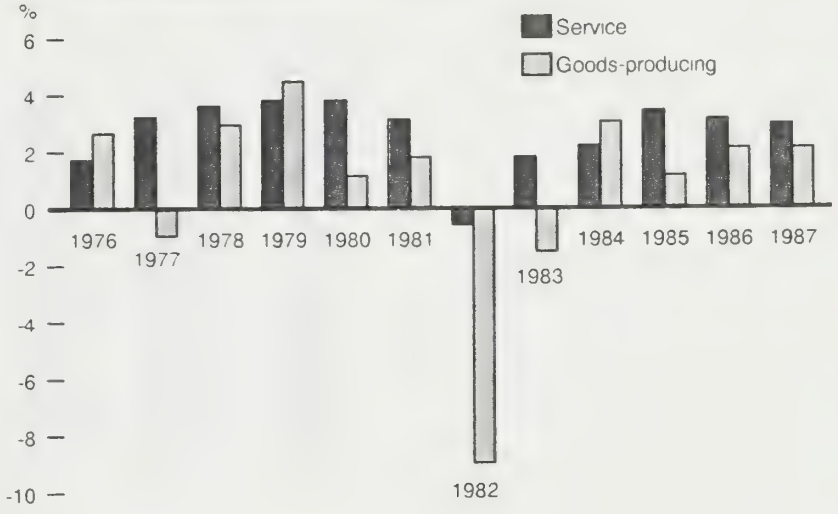
At the same time, men employed in the service sector were far more likely than women to be in other service industry jobs. In 1987, 27% of male service sector workers compared with just 3% of women were in occupations such as transportation, processing, and material handling.

Young most likely to have service sector jobs

Young adults are the most likely people to work in the service sector, although the majority of workers in all age groups are employed in this sector. Among 15-24-year-olds employed in 1987, 64% of men

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

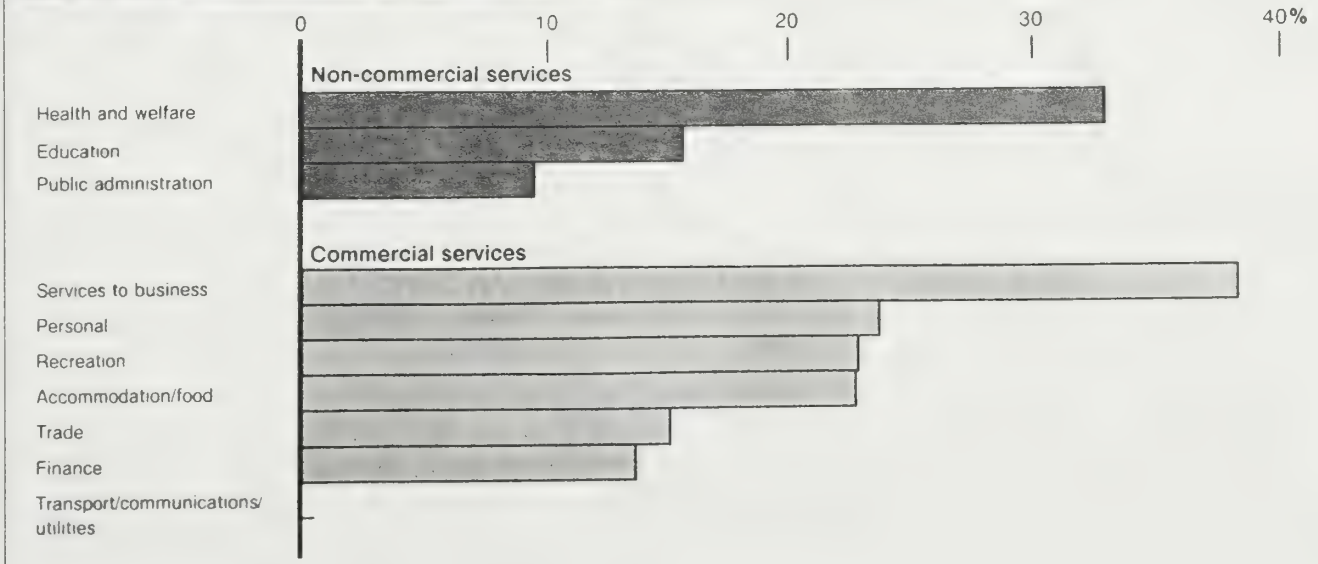
Annual percentage change in employment, by sector, 1975-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001 and 71-529

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage growth in service employment, by industry, 1980-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour Force Survey

and 87% of women had service sector jobs. For men, the proportion employed in the this sector fell to around 60% for those aged 25 and over. For older women, the percentage ranged from 84% for those aged 25-44 to 78% for those aged 65 and over.

Growth industry in all regions

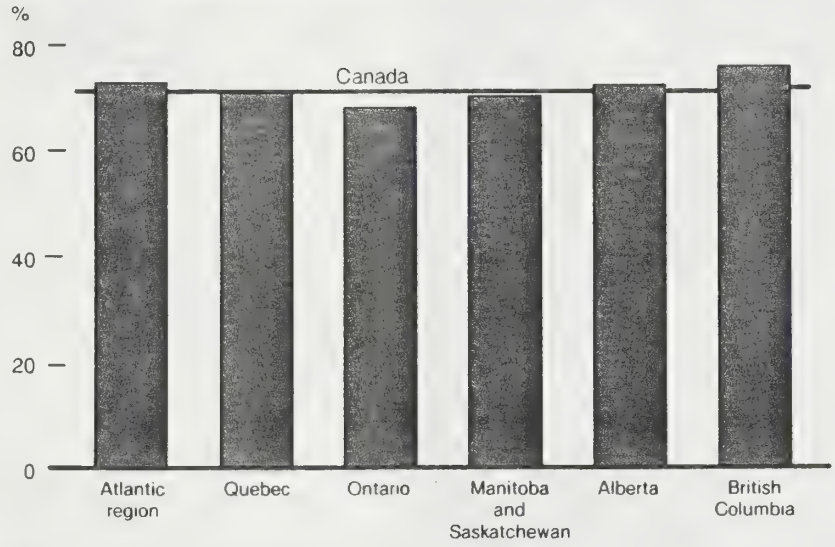
People employed in the service sector make up the majority of workers in all regions of Canada, though this sector's share of employment varies across the country.

The service sector's share of total employment was highest in British Columbia where it accounted for 76% of all employed people in 1987. Alberta and Atlantic Canada also have relatively large service sectors; 73% of workers in each of these areas had service jobs.

Ontario has the smallest proportion of its workforce employed in the service sector. In 1987, just 68% of people employed in this province were service workers. However, service sector growth has been much stronger in Ontario than in any other region in the 1980s. The number of people employed in Ontario's service sector rose 23% between 1980 and 1987 compared with an average of 15% in the other regions. As a result, Ontario accounted for almost half (47%) of all growth in service employment in Canada during the 1980s.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

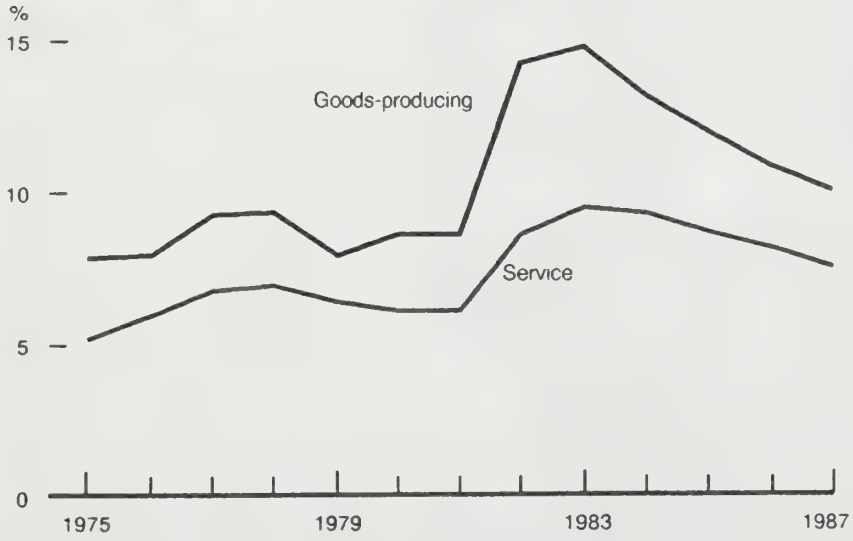
Percentage of employment in service sector, by region, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-001

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Unemployment rate, by sector, 1975-1987



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 71-001 and 71-529.

Part-time work a service phenomenon

In 1987, 89% of all part-time workers were in the service sector. That year, 19% of service sector workers were employed part-time compared with just 6% of goods-producing workers.

The incidence of part-time work varies widely in different service industries. Almost one-quarter of those employed in both community, business and personal services (24%), and wholesale and retail trade (23%) worked part-time in 1987. In comparison, the percentages working part-time in finance (11%), public administration (7%), and transportation, communications and utilities (6%) were much lower.

Female service sector workers are more likely than men to work part-time. In 1987, 28% of women employed in the service sector compared with 10% of men worked part-time. As well, part-time employment is relatively common among female service workers of all ages, whereas men aged 15-24 make up the vast majority of male part-time service workers.

In 1987, 73% of people employed part-time in the service sector worked part-time because they were going to school, had personal or family responsibilities, or did not want full-time work. Still, that year, 434,000 service sector workers, almost double the number in 1980, worked part-time because they could not find a full-time job.

Unemployment rate lower

The level of unemployment in the service sector is considerably below that in the goods-producing sector. The service sector had an unemployment rate of 7.5% in 1987 compared with 10.0% in the goods-producing industries.

Within the service sector, the unemployment rate ranged from just over 8% in community, business and personal services to less than 5% in finance.

Colin Lindsay *is a Managing Editor of* Canadian Social Trends.

DUAL-EARNER FAMILIES: THE NEW NORM

by Maureen Moore



As a growing proportion of women have entered the paid labour force, the number of families in which both husband and wife have wage and salary incomes has increased.[1] Between 1967 and 1986, the number of dual-earner families rose from about 1.3 million to around 3.4 million. In fact, by 1986, they made up the majority of husband-wife families in Canada.

Traditional pattern replaced

In 1986, both spouses had earned incomes in 62% of all husband-wife families, up sharply from 34% in 1967. By contrast, the percentage of traditional families, those in which the husband was the sole earner, declined from 61% to 27%.

Families in which the wife was the sole earner or in which neither spouse had earnings have also increased over the last two decades, the former from 1% to close to 4%, and the latter from 4% to 7%. The

[1] This article refers only to husband-wife families in which at least one spouse was under age 65. Total figures include the earnings of family members other than husbands and wives, which amounted to 5% of dual-earner family income and 8% for traditional families.

majority of spouses in these families, particularly the husbands, were aged 55 or over.

Staying on top

A second income has become an important element in the maintenance of family income. The average income of dual-earner families was almost $50,000 in 1986, compared with just under $40,000 for families in which the husband was the sole earner. That year, the earnings of wives in dual-earner families averaged $14,000, about 29% of their families' total income.

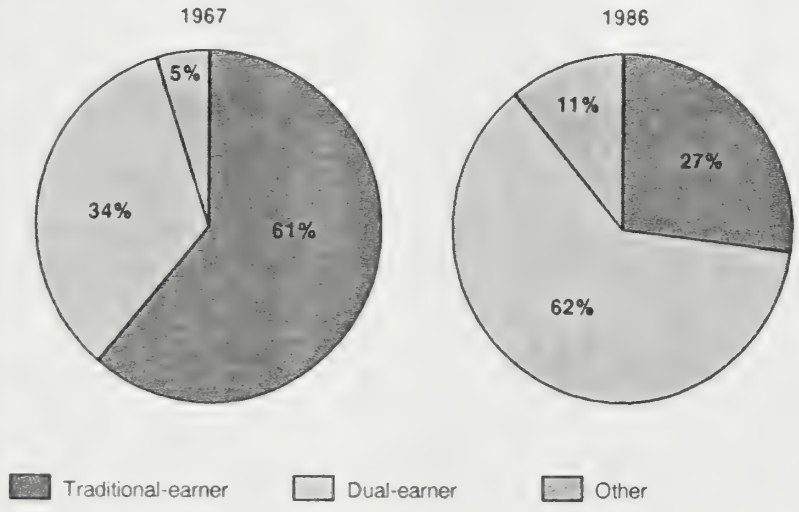
The importance of the second paycheque is magnified when income quintile and low-income data are examined. In 1986, 81% of families in the upper fifth of the income distribution were dual earners, in contrast to just 35% of those in the bottom fifth.

The share of dual-earner family income provided by wives, however, is relatively the same for all income quintile groups. In 1986, wives' earnings amounted to 29% of the income of dual-earner families in the top fifth of the income scale, just slightly more than that (26%) for dual-earner families in the bottom fifth.

At the same time, only 4% of dual-earner families, compared with 13% of traditional families, had incomes below Statistics Canada's low-income cut-offs. Without wives' earnings, however, about the same proportion of dual-earner (14%) families would have been classified as having low incomes.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

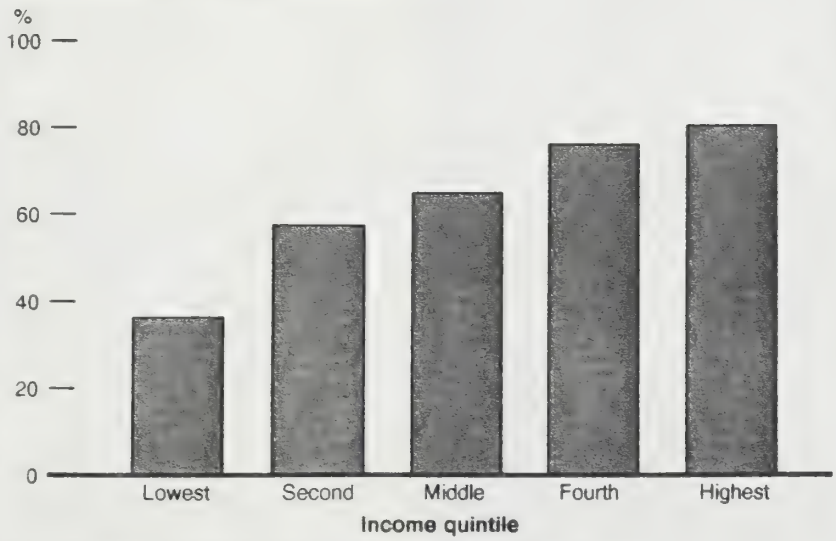
Dual- and traditional-earner families as a percentage of all husband-wife families, 1967 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Dual earners as a proportion of husband-wife families, by income quintile, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division

Social characteristics

Several characteristics of dual-earner families set them apart from couples in which the husband alone has an earned income. Spouses in dual-earner families are relatively young. They tend to have more formal education than other couples, and as a result, a higher proportion are employed in managerial or professional occupations. They are also less likely than traditional families to have children at home.

Dual earning is most common among young families. In 1986, 74% of families in which the husband was under age 45 had two earners, compared with 48% of families in which the husband was aged 45 and over.

In addition, wives' contribution to total family income was higher among young dual-earner couples than among older ones. Wives' earnings made up nearly a third (31%) of the total income of dual-earner families in which the husband was under age 45; this compared with about a quarter (26%) of the income of dual-earner families where the husband was older than 45.

Spouses in dual-earner families, particularly the wives, tend to have more education than those in traditional families. This is not surprising, since women with high educational attainment are more likely than others to be in the labour force. In 1986, 14% of wives in dual-earner families had a university degree, compared with 6% of those in traditional families. The gap between husbands' education was not as wide: 18% of husbands in dual-earner families were university graduates, compared with 14% of husbands in traditional families.

The percentage of income provided by wives in dual-earner families is also related to their education. Women who had a university degree provided the largest share: in 1986, it represented 35% of their families' total income. On the other hand, the proportion provided by dual-earner

wives with less than eight years of formal education was 23%.

Largely as a result of their higher level of education, spouses in dual-earner families are more likely than those in traditional families to have managerial or professional jobs. Whereas around 30% of both husbands and wives in dual-earner families worked in managerial or professional occupations, the proportion was just 24% for husbands in traditional families.

Spouses are more likely to be dual earners if the husband works full-time. While 71% of families in which the husband had a full-time job were dual earners in 1986, the figure was only 61%, if the husband had been unemployed sometime during the year.

However, wives' contribution to total dual-earner family income was greater if their husbands did not work full-time. For example, women whose husbands were unemployed for more than 27 weeks provided 37% of family income, while their share was 33% if the husband was unemployed 13-27 weeks, and 30% if he was out of work for less than 13 weeks. By contrast, wives' earnings amounted to 28% of total family income in dual-earner families where the husband worked full-time.

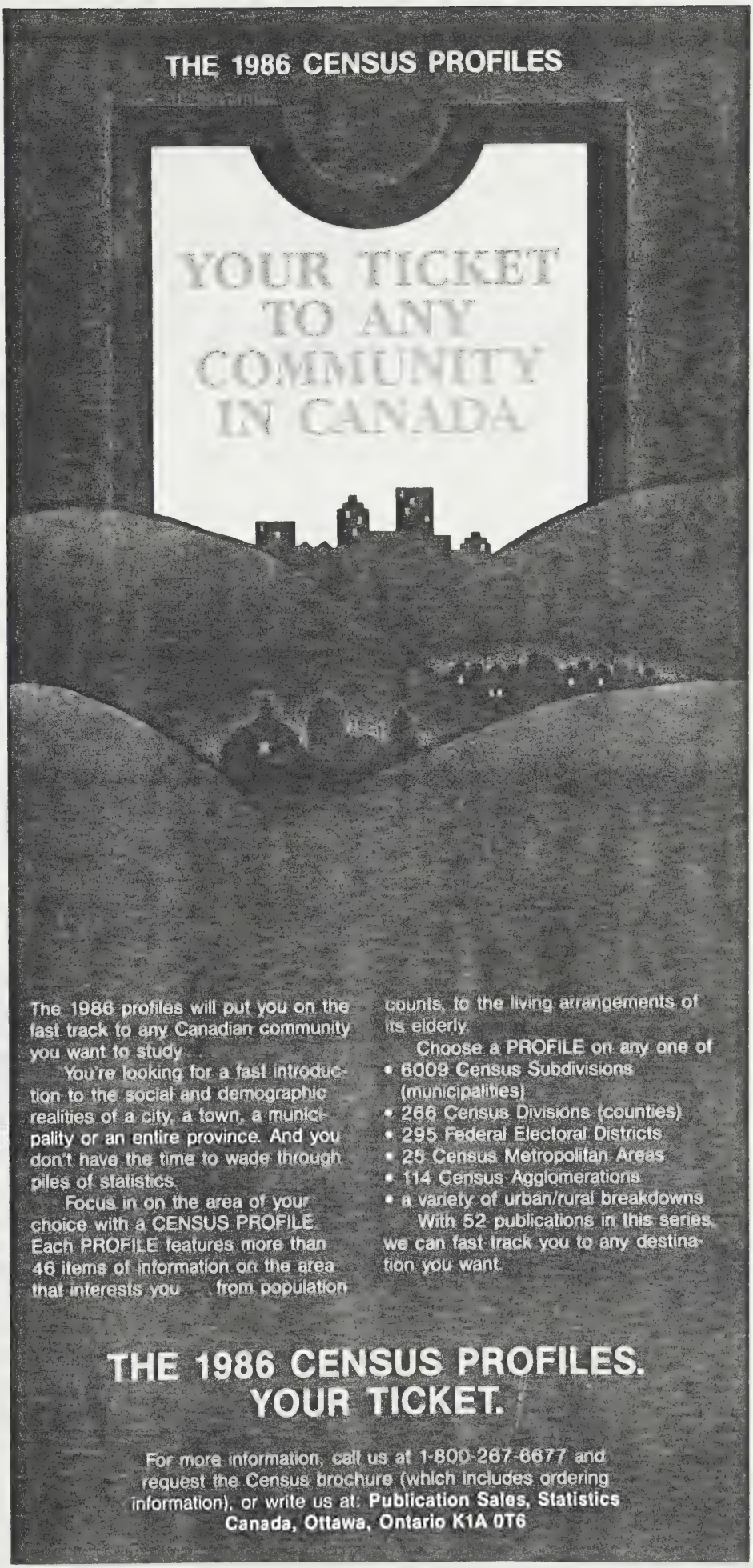
Overall, dual-earner families are slightly less likely than traditional families to have children at home. In 1986, 68% of dual-earner families had children, compared with 72% of traditional families.

The difference, however, was much sharper among young families. Only 32% of dual-earner families in which the wife was under age 25 had children, whereas the figure was 77% for traditional families. Among families in which the wife was aged 25-34, 70% of dual earners had children, compared with 95% for families in which the husband was the sole earner.

Regional differences

Dual-earner families are most common in the Prairies and Ontario. In 1986, 68% of husband-wife families in the Prairie provinces were dual earners, as were 66% of those in Ontario. By contrast, fewer than 60% of families in both Quebec (57%) and the Atlantic region (58%) had two earners, while the figure in British Columbia was 62%.

Maureen Moore *is an analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada*



1986 CENSUS HIGHLIGHTS

CHANGES IN LIVING ARRANGEMENTS



While the majority of the population still lives in families, results from the 1986 Census show ongoing changes in the living arrangements of Canadians. For example, increases in the number of lone-parent families, common-law couples, and one-person households have been particularly large. At the same time, average family size continues to decline.

Smaller proportion in families

In 1986, 84% of Canadians lived in families. This was down slightly from 85% in 1981 and continued a decline that began in 1966, when more than 88% of the population lived in families.

Although the proportion of Canadians living in families has dropped, the actual number of families rose 6% from 6.3 million in 1981 to 6.7 million in 1986. This increase, however, was much smaller than those of earlier years. For example, the number of families grew 13% between 1971 and 1976, and 10% between 1976 and 1981.

Varying growth rates

Over the 1981-1986 period, the number of lone-parent families and common-law unions increased much faster than traditional husband-wife families. During these five years, the number of lone-parent families rose 20% from 714,000 to 854,000, and common-law unions grew 37% from 357,000 to 487,000. In comparison, the number of traditional husband-wife families increased only 3% from 5.3 million to just under 5.4 million.

Consequently, lone parents and common-law couples accounted for a larger proportion of all families in 1986 than in 1981. Lone-parent families represented 13% of the total in 1986, up from 11% in 1981. At the same time, common-law unions as a percentage of all families rose from less than 6% to more than 7%. In contrast, the proportion accounted for by traditional husband-wife families fell from 83% to 80%.

Lone-parent families

The majority of lone-parent families (eight out of ten) were headed by women in 1986. More than half (57%) of these women were separated or divorced; 28% were widows; and 15% were unmarried mothers. This distribution was almost unchanged from 1981, but differed substantially from 1961, when 63% of female lone parents were widowed; 35% were separated or divorced; and just 2% were single mothers.

The relatively rapid growth in the number of lone-parent families is of concern because these families, particularly those headed by women, are likely to face a variety of social and economic difficulties. For instance, in 1986, 44% of all female-headed lone-parent families had incomes that fell below Statistics Canada's low income cut-offs.

Also, a growing proportion of Canadian children are living in lone-parent families. In 1986, about 1.2 million children, or over 14% of all children in Canada, were members of lone-parent families; the corresponding proportion in 1961 was 6%.

Family size dropping

The average size of Canadian families is falling. In 1986, there were an average of 3.1 people in each family, down from 3.3 in 1981, and 3.9 in 1961.

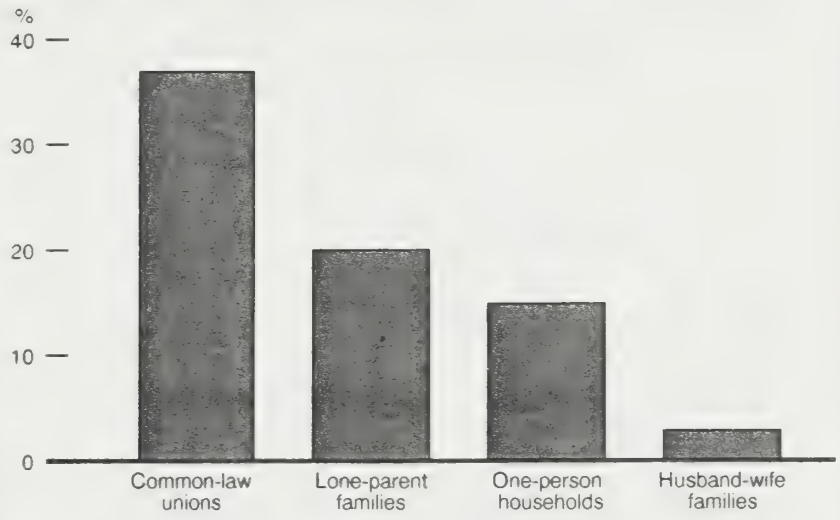
Most of the decrease in family size is a result of the drop in the number of children per family, which is attributed largely to declines in fertility. The average number of children in each family fell from 1.9 in 1961 to 1.3 in 1986.

The increasing number of lone-parent families has also contributed to smaller family size. Lone-parent families averaged 2.6 people in 1986, compared with 3.2 for husband-wife families.

As well, the number of families with no children at home has grown. In 1986, the 2.2 million families that were either

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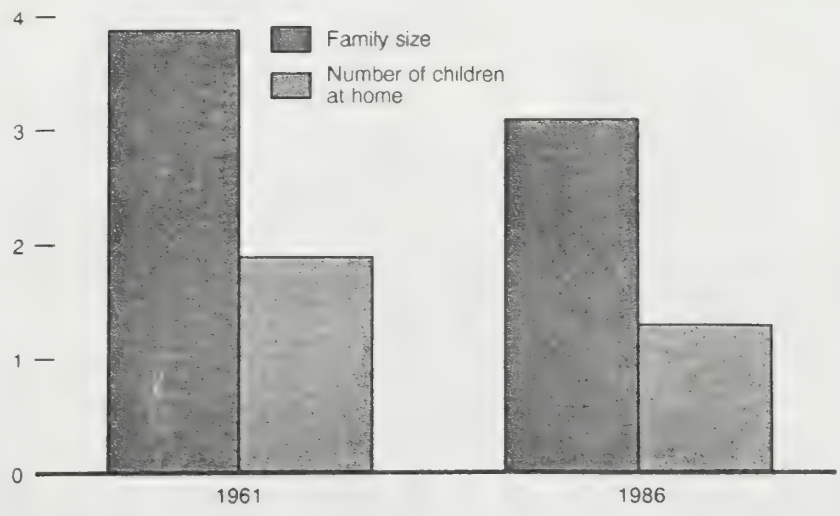
Percentage increase in the number of families and one-person households, 1981-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average family size and average number of children at home, 1961 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada

childless or whose children had left home represented 33% of all families, up slightly from 32% in 1981 and 29% in 1961.

Despite the increase in the number of families without children, close to 70% of Canadian families, a total of 4.5 million, had children at home in 1986. Also, about 1.5 million of these families had at least one child under age 6.

Solitary living

One of the fastest-growing groups of Canadians consists of people who live alone. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of one-person households rose 15%. By 1986, the 1.9 million Canadians living alone accounted for 10% of the population aged 15 and over, an increase from 9% in 1981, and from 4% in 1961.

The age distribution and marital status of people in one-person households differ substantially from those of the total adult population, with the elderly, particularly elderly widowed women, the most likely to live alone.

In 1986, 25% of people aged 65 and over were living alone; however, more than three-quarters (77%) of them were women. In fact, 34% of all elderly women were living alone. Most of these women, about eight out of ten, were widows. By contrast, just 14% of elderly men, half of them widowed, lived alone.

Differences in life expectancy, with women living longer than men, combined with the tendency for men to marry women somewhat younger than themselves, result in the large number of elderly widows left on their own.

At younger ages, the proportions of people in one-person households are comparatively small. Also, younger people living alone tend to be single, divorced, or separated rather than widowed. Fewer than 4% of 15-24-year-olds lived alone in 1986, and virtually all of them (96%) were unmarried. At ages 25-44, almost 8% of the population were living alone, and again, the majority (70%) were single. By ages 45-64, close to 10% of people were living alone. The most common marital status for this group was divorced or separated (43%), although single (29%) and widowed (28%) people made up substantial proportions.

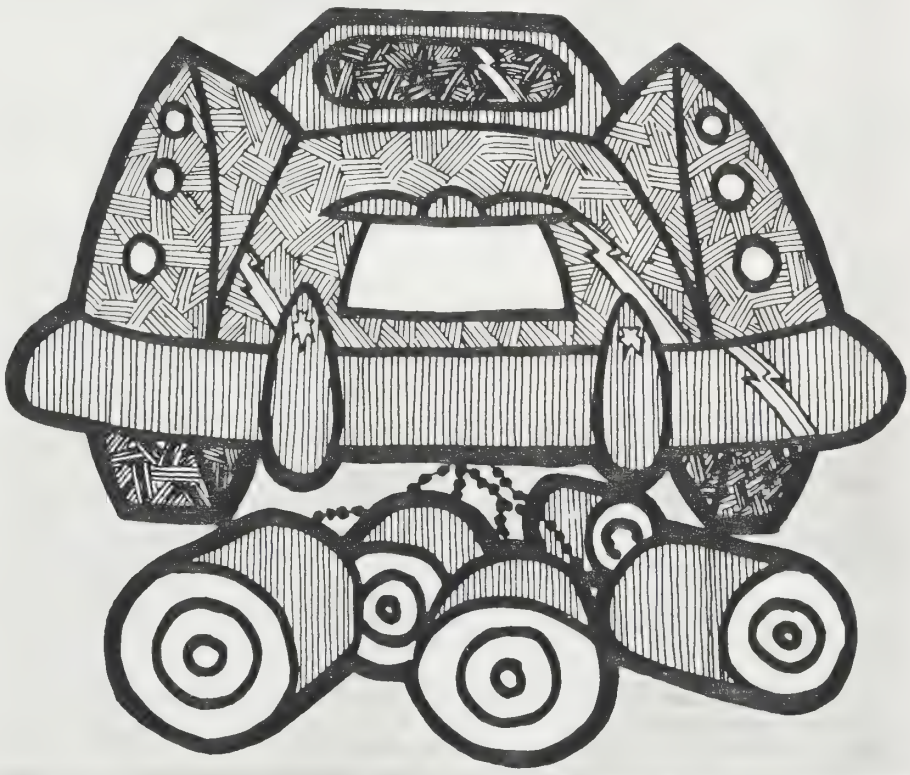
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ANNUAL LABOUR FORCE ESTIMATES, 1946-1988

	Population aged 15 and over (000s)	Labour Force (000s)			Participation rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)	Employment/population ratio (%)
		Total	Employed	Unemployed			
1946	8,779	4,829	4,666	163	55.0	3.4	53.1
1947	9,007	4,942	4,832	110	54.9	2.2	53.6
1948	9,141	4,988	4,875	114	54.6	2.3	53.3
1949	9,268	5,055	4,913	141	54.5	2.8	53.0
1950[1]	9,615	5,163	4,976	186	53.7	3.6	51.8
1951	9,732	5,223	5,097	126	53.7	2.4	52.4
1952	9,956	5,324	5,169	155	53.5	2.9	51.9
1953	10,164	5,397	5,235	162	53.1	3.0	51.5
1954	10,391	5,493	5,243	250	52.9	4.6	50.5
1955	10,597	5,610	5,364	245	52.9	4.4	50.6
1956	10,807	5,782	5,585	197	53.5	3.4	51.7
1957	11,123	6,008	5,731	278	54.0	4.6	51.5
1958	11,388	6,137	5,706	432	53.9	7.0	50.1
1959	11,605	6,242	5,870	372	53.8	6.0	50.6
1960	11,831	6,411	5,965	446	54.2	7.0	50.4
1961	12,053	6,521	6,055	466	54.1	7.1	50.2
1962	12,280	6,615	6,225	390	53.9	5.9	50.7
1963	12,536	6,748	6,375	374	53.8	5.5	50.9
1964	12,817	6,933	6,609	324	54.1	4.7	51.6
1965	13,128	7,141	6,862	280	54.4	3.9	52.3
1966[2]	13,083	7,493	7,242	251	57.3	3.4	55.4
1967	13,444	7,747	7,451	296	57.6	3.8	55.4
1968	13,805	7,951	7,593	358	57.6	4.5	55.0
1969	14,162	8,194	7,832	362	57.9	4.4	55.3
1970	14,528	8,395	7,919	476	57.8	5.7	54.5
1971	14,872	8,639	8,104	535	58.1	6.2	54.5
1972	15,186	8,897	8,344	553	58.6	6.2	54.9
1973	15,526	9,276	8,761	515	59.7	5.5	56.4
1974	15,924	9,639	9,125	514	60.5	5.3	57.3
1975	16,323	9,974	9,284	690	61.1	6.9	56.9
1976	16,701	10,203	9,477	726	61.1	7.1	56.7
1977	17,051	10,500	9,651	849	61.6	8.1	56.6
1978	17,377	10,895	9,987	908	62.7	8.3	57.5
1979	17,702	11,231	10,395	836	63.4	7.4	58.7
1980	18,053	11,573	10,708	865	64.1	7.5	59.3
1981	18,368	11,899	11,001	898	64.8	7.5	59.9
1982	18,608	11,926	10,618	1,308	64.1	11.0	57.1
1983	18,805	12,109	10,675	1,434	64.4	11.8	56.8
1984	18,996	12,316	10,932	1,384	64.8	11.2	57.5
1985	19,190	12,532	11,221	1,311	65.3	10.5	58.5
1986	19,397	12,746	11,531	1,215	65.7	9.5	59.4
1987	19,642	13,011	11,861	1,150	66.2	8.8	60.4
1988	19,890	13,275	12,244	1,031	66.7	7.8	61.6

[1] Includes Newfoundland beginning in 1950.
[2] Includes the population aged 15 and over beginning in 1966. Data prior to 1966 are based on the population aged 14 and over. Estimates for 1966 to 1974 have been adjusted to conform to current concepts. Estimates prior to 1966 have not been revised.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,625.1	25,923.3[p]
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.1	1.2[p]
Immigration[1]	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	123,076	150,804[p]
Emigration[1]	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	41,090	41,440[p]
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	694	986	1,072	1,037	991	918	870	*
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	11,001	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244
- goods sector (000s)	3,711	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693
- services sector (000s)	7,290	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550
Total unemployment (000s)	898	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031
Unemployment rate	7.5	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8
Part-time employment (%)	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4
Women's participation rate	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1987 $	27,838	29,731	30,896	32,167	34,736	36,858	38,851	*
% of families with low income	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	12.6	11.8	11.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	64.9	65.8	65.9	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.5[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.2	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	*
Government expenditure on education (1987 $000,000)	28,808.6	28,950.0	29,475.2	28,980.6	31,112.5	29,675.3	30,227.9	*
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	*	*
- women	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	*	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	36.7	-	34.0	-	33.1	30.8	*	*
- women	28.9	-	28.3	-	27.8	25.8	*	*
Government expenditure on health (1987 $000,000)	25,982.5	27,046.9	28,501.8	28,488.5	30,599.6	31,035.1	31,858.1	*
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	666	685	692	714	749	808	856	*
- property	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	*
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	*
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1987 $000,000)	121,628.9	130,173.0	136,395.7	138,037.3	144,847.0	145,563.9	147,237.4	*
- as a % of total expenditures	57.0	58.0	59.4	58.0	58.9	59.3	60.0	*
- as a % of GDP	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.8	27.5	26.7	*
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	*
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	*
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,902.9	*
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	+3.7	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.6	+3.2	+4.0	*
Annual inflation rate (%)	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1
Urban housing starts	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635

- Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.
[1] For year ending May 31st.
[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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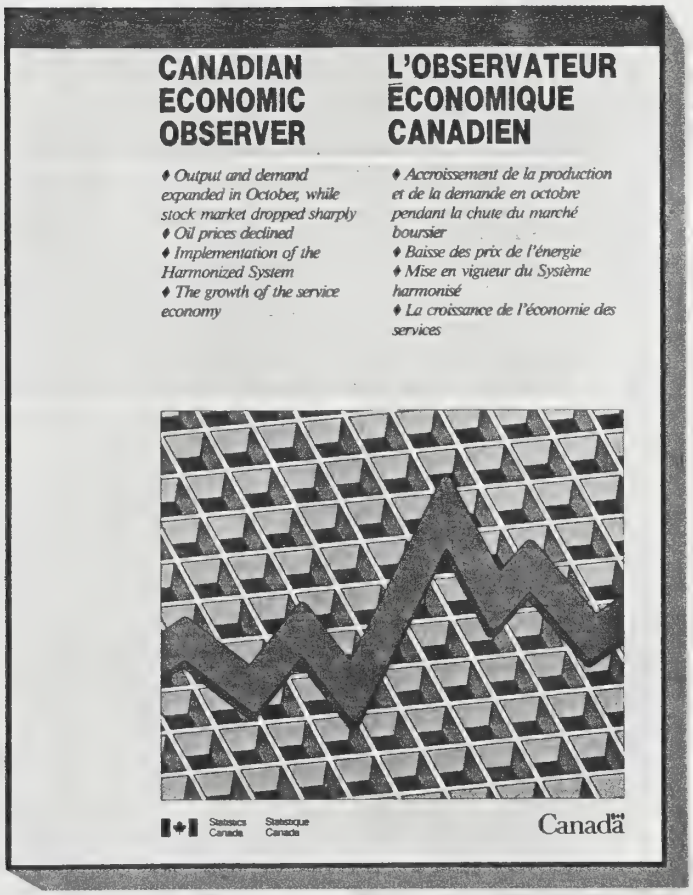
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Cover: ***Northwest Arm (1926)*** oil on canvas, 50.8 x 61.0 cm. Collection: National Gallery of Canada.

About the artist:

Elizabeth Nutt was born on the Isle of Man in 1870. Her study of art began in England and continued in France and Italy. Upon her arrival in Canada, Ms. Nutt was appointed Principal of the Nova Scotia College of Art (1919). While in Canada, she was active in promoting art appreciation classes in Canadian schools. A member of the Nova Scotia Society of Artists, she exhibited her paintings with the Royal Canadian Academy and in solo shows at the Nova Scotia College of Art. In 1943, Ms. Nutt became ill and resigned her post at the College. She returned to England where she died in 1946.

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WOMEN EMPLOYED OUTSIDE THE HOME

by Jo-Anne B. Parliament



One of the major social trends in Canada in recent decades has been the increasing proportion of women employed outside the home. By 1988, for example, over half of all women had jobs. Working women, however, remain concentrated in traditional female occupations such as clerical work, and their earnings are still well below those of men.

The increase in the employment of women has also brought about a number of related social concerns such as the need for child care.

Growing proportion of women with jobs

The percentage of women employed outside the home has continued to increase sharply since the mid-1970s. Overall, 53% of women worked outside the home in 1988 compared with just 41% in 1975. In fact, women accounted for two-thirds of all employment growth in Canada between 1975 and 1988. Consequently, the number of women with jobs, as a percentage of all employed people, increased from 36% in 1975 to 44% in 1988.

The proportion of women with jobs did drop slightly during the recession in the early 1980s; however, by 1984, it was back up to the 1981 level. Since then, the percentage of women working has risen by over one percentage point each year.

Trends in the employment of men have differed from those of women. The proportion of men with jobs hovered around 73% from 1975 until the recession. The recession, however, had a much greater impact on men's than women's employment. Between 1981 and 1983, for example, the proportion of men with jobs fell 5.4 percentage points. While the proportion of men with jobs has climbed since then, the 1988 figure (71%) was still below the pre-recession level. Still, in 1988, the percentage of men with jobs was about 18 percentage points higher than that for women, although this was down from a 33 percentage-point gap in 1975.

Provincial differences

The proportion of women with jobs varies considerably by province. In 1988, this measure ranged from a high of 59% in Alberta to a low of 37% in Newfoundland. At least half of women were also employed in Ontario (58%), Manitoba (54%), Saskatchewan (53%), and British Columbia (50%). On the other hand, fewer than half of women in Quebec (48%), Prince Edward Island (47%), Nova Scotia (46%), and New Brunswick (44%) had jobs.

Largest gains at ages 25-54

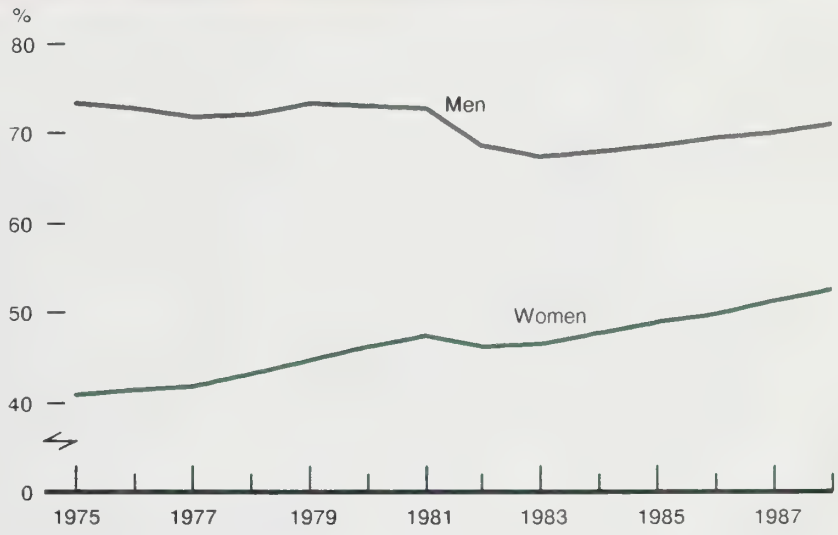
Employment rates of women increased for all age groups under 65, with the largest gains among 25-54-year-olds. Between 1975 and 1988, the percentage of women aged 25-44 employed outside the home rose from just under 50% to about 70%; for women aged 45-54, the increase was from 44% to 62%.

The percentage of 15-24-year-old women working outside the home also grew, but not as dramatically as for women aged 25-54. The proportion of employed women in this age range rose from 50% in 1975 to 60% in 1988. On the other hand, there was only a small increase, from 29% to 33%, in the proportion of women aged 55-64 with jobs.

In contrast, employment rates dropped for most male age groups between 1975 and 1988. The decline among men aged 55-64, from 76% to 62%, was particularly sharp. In the same period, the share of men aged 25-54 with jobs fell between 2

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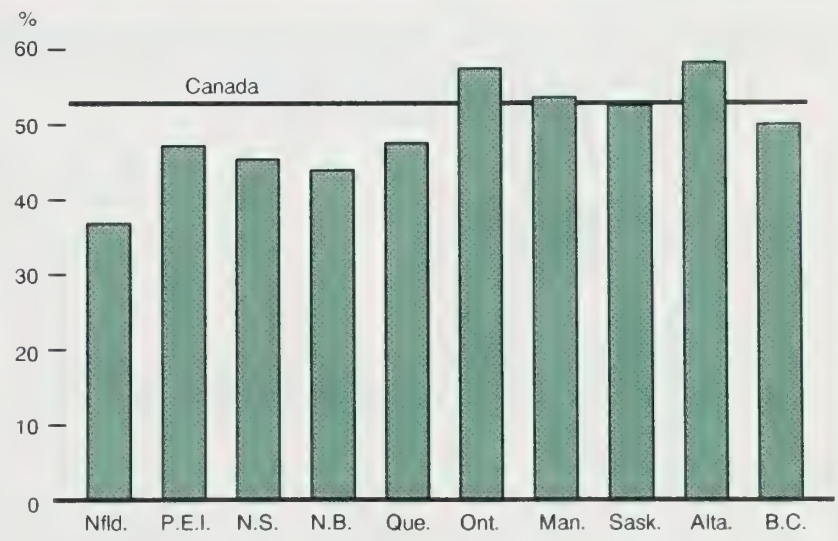
Percentage of women and men employed, 1975-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529.

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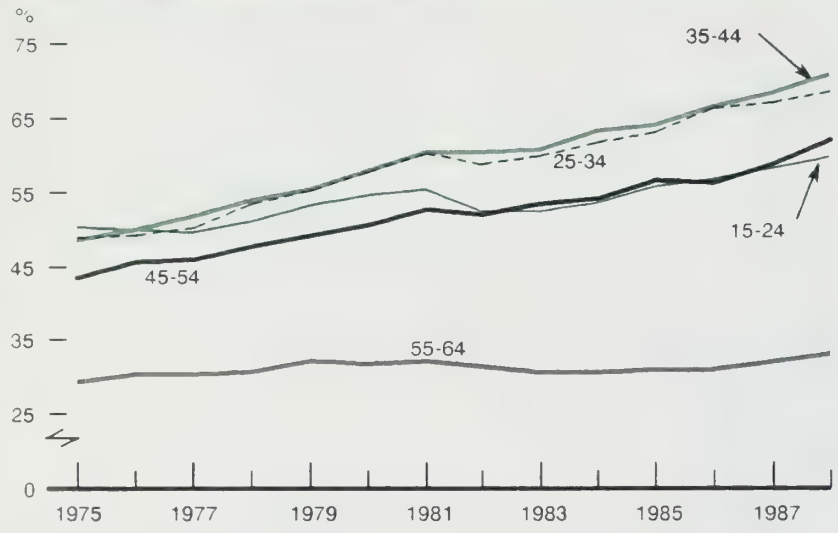
Percentage of women employed, by province, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529.

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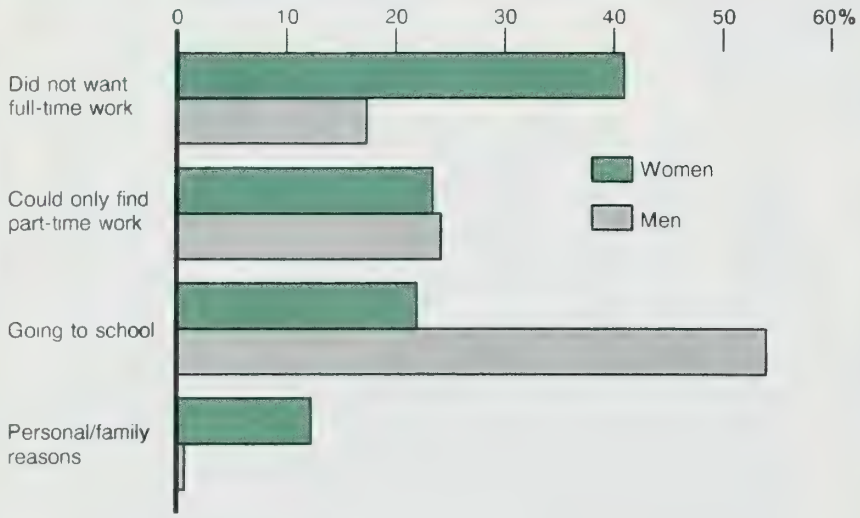
Percentage of women employed, by age, 1975-1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529.

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Reasons for working part-time, by sex, 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529.

and 3 percentage points. Employment rates did rise among 15-24-year-old men; however, the increase was only about three percentage points.

More married women working

Employment growth was particularly substantial among married women. In 1988, 54% of these women had jobs compared with 38% in 1975.

Nonetheless, married women are still less likely than their single counterparts to be employed outside the home. In 1988, 62% of single women had jobs, although this was up only modestly from 54% in 1975.

That single women are more likely than married women to be employed contrasts with the situation among men. In 1988, for example, 75% of married men were working compared with 65% of single men.

Many more women with children working

There have also been major increases in the employment of women with children. In 1988, 57% of married women with children under age 6 whose husband was employed had jobs, up from 31% in 1976. In the same period, the proportion of married women with children aged 6-15 with jobs rose from 47% to 70%.

Female lone parents were somewhat less likely than mothers with employed husbands to have jobs outside the home. In 1988, just 42% of female lone parents with pre-school children and 63% of those with children aged 6-15 were employed. This is a reversal from the mid-1970s when a greater proportion of female lone parents than married women with children had been employed.

Rapid growth in female part-time employment

A considerable proportion of the increase in women's employment is attributable to part-time work. In fact, the increase in the

Day care

The increase in the number of employed women has meant that a growing number of children live in families in which both parents are working. At the same time, the number of employed lone parents and the number of children in such families have also increased. The result has been a sharp upturn in need for non-parental care during the day or after school.

Between 1976 and 1986, the number of children under age 6 with either both parents working or an employed lone parent increased from just over 600,000 to 954,000. The majority of these children, about 90%, were in families in which both parents worked. The number of children aged 6-15 in families with both parents employed or with an employed lone parent also increased between 1976 and 1986, from 1.7 to 1.9 million. Over the same period, the total number of day-care spaces grew from 83,500 to 220,500.

number of women working part-time accounted for about one-third of all growth in the employment of women from 1975 to 1988. In this period, the number of women employed part-time doubled from 678,000 to 1.4 million. As a result, by 1988, 25% of employed women were working part-time, compared to just 8% of men. Overall, 72% of part-time workers in 1988 were women, up slightly from 70% in 1975.

Young women are the most likely to work part-time, although part-time employment is common among women of all ages. In 1988, 37% of employed women aged 15-24 had part-time jobs, while the corresponding figures were 20% for 25-44-year-olds and 26% for women aged 45 and over.

The incidence of part-time work among men is also highest for those aged 15-24. In contrast to women, though, part-time work is rare among men over age 25. In 1988, while 29% of employed men aged 15-24 worked part-time, just 2% of men aged 25-44 and 5% of those aged 45 and over did so.

Reasons for part-time employment

The primary reason women work part-time is that they do not want a full-time job. In 1988, 41% of women working part-time gave this as their reason for working part-time. Another 12% cited personal or family responsibilities, while 24% could only find part-time jobs, and 22% were going to school.

In comparison, the majority (54%) of men working part-time said they did so because they were going to school. Another 24% could only find part-time work, and 18% stated that they did not want full-time work. Just 1% gave personal or family responsibilities as their reason for working part-time.

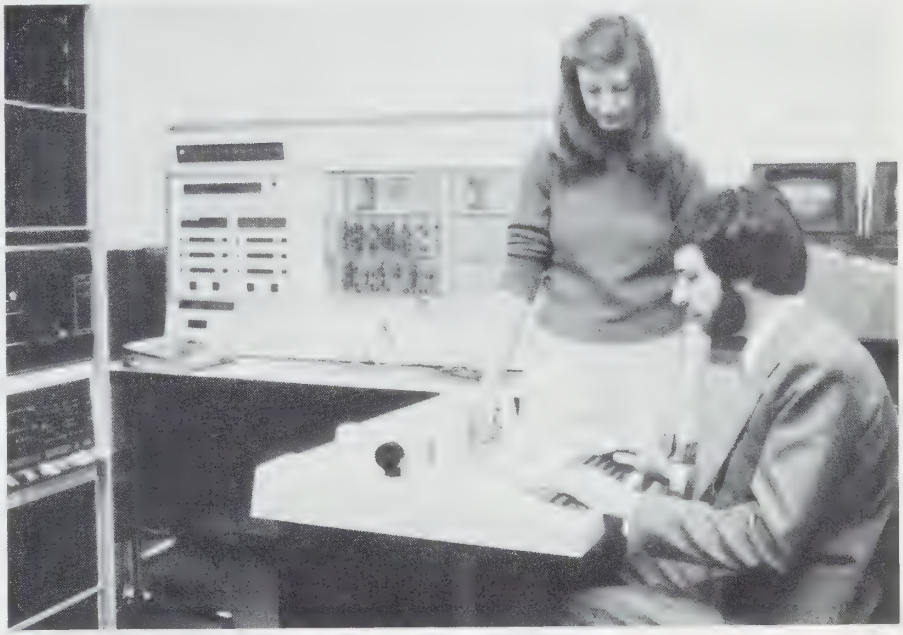
Higher education, higher employment

Not surprisingly, women with the highest levels of education are the most likely to be employed. In 1988, 76% of women with a university degree, 69% with a postsecondary certificate or diploma, and 62% with some postsecondary training were employed. On the other hand, 52% of women with some high school education and just 22% with less than Grade 9 worked outside the home.

The pattern was the same among men; however, the gap between the proportions of women and men who are employed narrows at successively higher levels of education. For example, in 1988, there was a 10 percentage-point difference between the employment levels of women (76%) and men (86%) with a university degree. The difference was 15 percentage points for those with a postsecondary certificate or diploma; 20 percentage points for those with some high school; and 24 percentage points for those with less than Grade 9.

Most women still in traditional jobs

While the range of jobs held by women has grown in the last decade,[+] the majority of working women are still concentrated



Employment statistics, 1975-1988

	Total employment		Percentage employed		Percentage employed part-time	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
	000s		%			
1975	3,381	5,903	40.8	73.5	20.3	5.1
1976	3,513	5,964	41.4	72.7	21.1	5.1
1977	3,619	6,032	41.7	72.0	22.1	5.4
1978	3,830	6,156	43.3	72.2	22.6	5.5
1979	4,033	6,362	44.7	73.3	23.3	5.7
1980	4,249	6,459	46.2	73.0	23.8	5.9
1981	4,445	6,556	47.4	72.9	24.2	6.3
1982	4,382	6,236	46.1	68.5	25.1	6.9
1983	4,472	6,203	46.5	67.5	26.1	7.6
1984	4,624	6,308	47.6	68.0	25.7	7.6
1985	4,794	6,429	48.8	68.7	26.0	7.6
1986	4,964	6,567	49.9	69.5	25.7	7.8
1987	5,152	6,708	51.2	70.1	25.1	7.6
1988	5,368	6,876	52.6	70.9	25.2	7.7

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 71-529.



in a narrow range of traditional female occupations. In 1988, 73% of all working women were employed in either clerical, sales or service positions, teaching, or health services, mostly nursing. This figure was down only slightly from 78% in 1975, and it remains well above the proportion for men. In 1988, just 30% of men were employed in one of these occupations.

In terms of individual occupations, clerical postions still account for the largest share of working women. In 1988, almost 1 in 3 employed women (31%) had a clerical job, although this was down from 36% in 1975. Another 17% of employed women were in service positions; 10% were in sales; 9% were in health care occupations; and 6% were teachers.

Average earnings

The real average earnings of women employed full-time increased 8% between 1975 and 1987, while those of men actually declined slightly. Consequently, women's earnings as a percentage of men's rose from 60% in 1975 to 66% in 1987.

In 1987, women employed full-time earned an average of $21,000, up from $19,500 (in constant 1987 $) in 1975. Over the same period, average earnings of men dropped from $32,300 to $31,900.

The difference between the earnings of women and men persists at all educational levels. Even women with a university degree, the highest-paid group, made only 70% of the average earnings of male graduates. However, this may be changing, as the figure was 80% among university degree-holders aged 25-34.

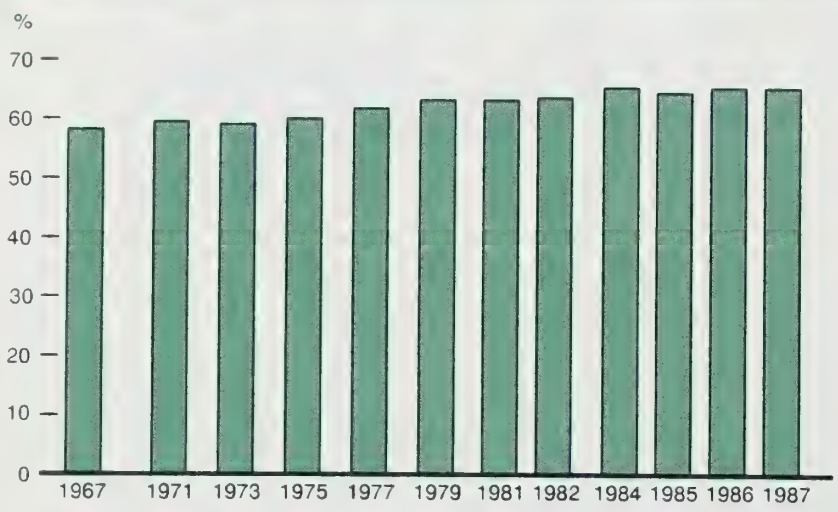
There are some groups, though, in which the earnings of women and men are similar. For example, there is almost no difference between the average earnings of comparable, never-married women and men.

Jo-Anne B. Parliament *is Associate Editor of* Canadian Social Trends.

* For more detail on employment trends among professional women, see the Spring, 1989 issue of Canadian Social Trends.

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Women's earnings as a percentage of men's, 1967-1987[1]



[1] Includes full-time, full-year workers.
Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 13-217.



EATING OUT

by Linda Robbins

Whether it's a candlelit dinner in a gourmet restaurant or a hamburger from a fast-food outlet, meals eaten or purchased away from home are increasingly popular with Canadians. In fact, according to a 1988 Gallup survey,[1] about seven out of ten adults had eaten out within the last week, and only 5% said that they never eat out at all.

As a result, eating out expenditures, including meals in table-service restaurants, fast-food establishments, and cafeterias, make up a rising proportion of food spending. In 1986, the average household spent more than a quarter of its total food budget on such meals, a substantial rise over 1969, when eating out accounted for 15% of the food dollar.

Trends in both household formation and labour force participation have contributed to the growing frequency of eating out. Two-income couples and one-person households often lack the time or the desire to prepare meals at home, preferring instead to dine in a restaurant or buy take-out/delivery items.

Some population groups are more likely than others to have meals away from home. Affluent people, for example, eat out more often and spend a larger share of their food budget on these meals than do people in lower-income households. Similarly, households in which the wife is employed full-time, married couples without children, and people living alone are the most likely to patronize foodservice establishments.

Most Canadians eat out

The vast majority of Canadians eat out at least occasionally, and most do so regularly.

The 1988 Gallup survey reported that 69% of adults had been restaurant patrons during the previous week; of these, 46% had eaten out within the past three days. A further 18% had eaten a restaurant meal one to four weeks earlier, while 7% had done so more than a month before. Only 5% of all adults said that they never eat out.

The likelihood of eating out is strongly associated with income. Whereas 59% of people whose household income exceeded $40,000 had eaten out in the previous three days, the figure was just 31% for those in the less-than-$20,000 category.

Young people were particularly likely to have eaten out recently. Close to two-thirds (63%) of 18-24-year-olds had eaten out within the last three days. This proportion fell in older age groups to just over a quarter (27%) of people aged 65 and over.

[1] Gallup Canada, Inc., and Canadian Restaurant and Foodservice Association, *Gallup on Eating Out*, September 1988, Vol. 2, No. 1.

Higher levels of education were also associated with the likelihood of eating out. Sixty-four percent of people with a university education had been to a restaurant in the last three days, compared with 44% of those with high school, and 30% who had not gone beyond public school.

Who spends the most?

Meals away from home accounted for 27% of the total food budget of Canadian households in 1986, up from 15% in 1969. Expenditures on eating out, however, vary for different groups.

Eating out makes up a particularly large proportion of food expenditures in high-income households. Meals away from home represented 35% of the food spending of households with incomes above $60,000, but just 21% for those in the less-than-$10,000 bracket.

Childless families spend proportionally more on eating out than do families with children. Fully 30% of the food expenditures of childless couples in 1986 were on meals away from home, compared with 22% for families with children. Somewhat surprisingly, the proportion of the food budget devoted to eating out was almost the same for lone-parent families and husband-wife families with children.

As well, in households where the wife had a full-time job, 30% of the food dollar was spent on meals away from home. If she worked part-time, eating out accounted for 25% of the household's food budget, and for households in which the wife was not employed, the proportion was just 20%.

As might be expected, single people spent considerably more of their food dollar on meals away from home than did families. In 1986, eating out represented half of the food expenditures of single men and 30% of those of single women. By contrast, the corresponding figure for families with children was 22%.

However, singles' spending on food away from home fell at older ages. While single men under age 45 spent 56% of their food dollar on restaurant meals (the highest percentage of any group), the corresponding figure for single men over age 65 was 27%. For single women, comparable shares were 45% and 17%, respectively.

Meals away from home also make up a much larger proportion of the food budget of city households than of those in rural areas. Eating out accounted for 29% of the food expenditures of households in large cities (population 500,000 and over), compared with 21% for rural households.

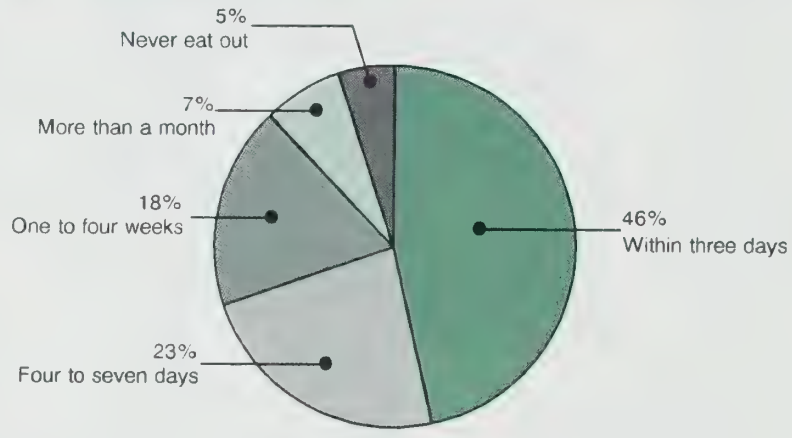
The percentage of food expenditures allocated to eating out varies in different provinces, with proportionate spending generally higher in Ontario and the west than in Quebec and the Atlantic region. Ontario and Alberta households spent the greatest share of their food dollar on meals away from home (29%), while the figure was 28% in Saskatchewan, and 27% in both British Columbia and Manitoba. Percentages in the other provinces were below the national average (27%): Quebec (25%), Prince Edward Island (23%), New Brunswick (22%), and Nova Scotia (20%). Newfoundland households spent just 13% of their food dollar on eating out, the smallest share in any province.

Where we eat

In 1987, there were almost 35,000 food-service establishments in Canada, with total receipts of more than $12.0 billion. This compared with around 32,000 establishments in 1981, with receipts of

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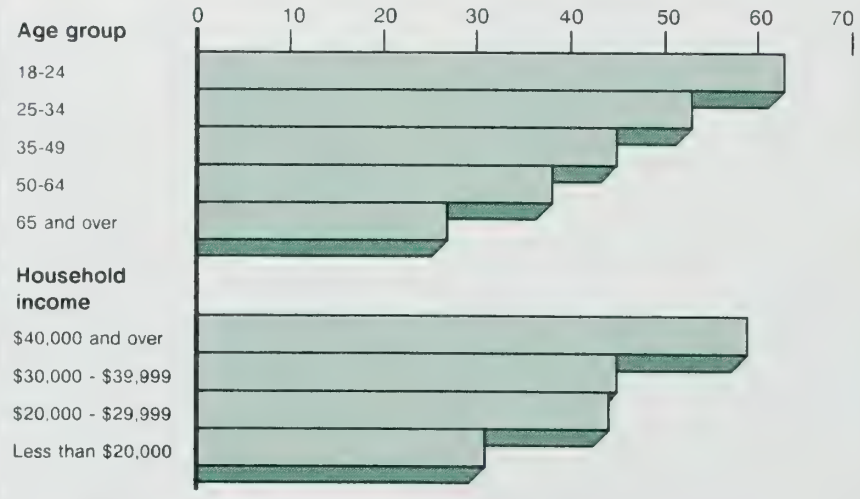
Last time Canadians ate out, 1988



Source: Gallup Canada, Inc., and Canadian Restaurant and Foodservice Association, *Gallup on Eating Out*, September 1988, Vol. 2, No. 1.

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Proportion of the population who ate out in past three days, by age and household income, 1988



Source: Gallup Canada, Inc., and Canadian Restaurant and Foodservice Association, *Gallup on Eating Out*, September 1988, Vol. 2, No.1.

$10.7 billion (constant 1987 dollars).

The largest share of Canadians' eating out expenditures — 58% in 1986 — was in table-service restaurants. Fast-food restaurants received another 25% of the away-from-home food dollar, with take-out/delivery outlets and eat-in/drive-in restaurants accounting for 13% and 12%, respectively. Another 10% of spending on meals away from home was in cafeterias, and the remaining 7% was in other kinds of restaurants.

Something different

During 1988, about 80% of Canadian adults tried at least one restaurant where they had never eaten before. This proportion included 39% who had been to 1-3 new places, 17% who had tried 4-6, and 24% who had eaten at 7 or more.

The most common reason for trying a new restaurant, mentioned by 34% of patrons, was curiosity about the food. Recommendations prompted another 28% to try a new place.

Type of meal

Overall, dinner accounted for about half of all expenditures on meals away from home, and lunch, about a third. Another 7% of eating out spending was for breakfast, while the remaining 11% was spent between meals.

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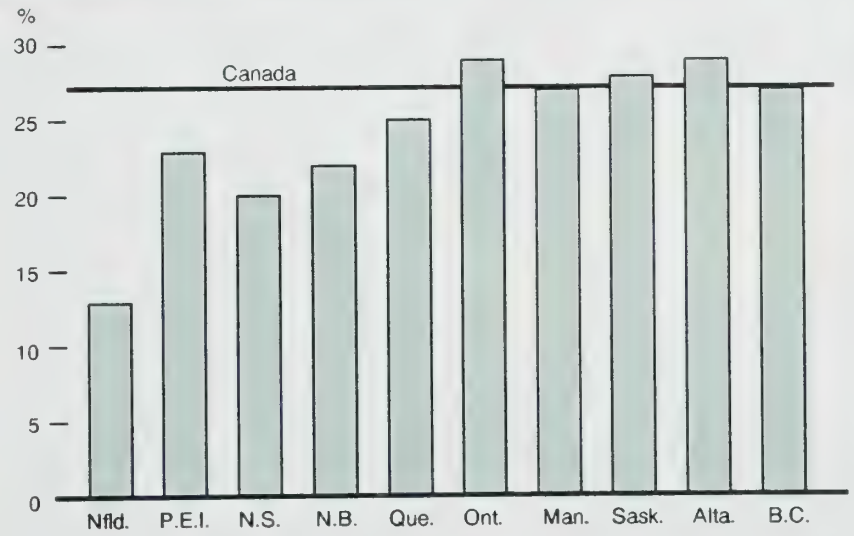
Eating out expenses as a proportion of total family food expenditure, by employment status of wife, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 62-554.

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Eating out expenses as a proportion of total food expenditure, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 62-554.

Microwave ovens

Eating out is the ultimate solution for people who do not want to be bothered with time-consuming meal preparation. The next best thing, however, may be a microwave oven. In fact, the number of Canadian households with microwave ovens has risen steeply during the 1980s. By 1988, 54% of all households were equipped with these appliances, up from 8% in 1981, and just 1% in 1975.

Vending machines

In 1986, Canadians spent over $285 million buying beverages and food from almost 137,000 vending machines. Beverages, mostly coffee and soft drinks, accounted for about two-thirds of these sales. The food purchased from vending machines tended to be snack items such as chocolate bars, candies, and potato chips.

More than half (53%) of all vending machines were located in industrial plants or business offices. Another 10% were in institutions such as hospitals, universities, and schools, and almost as many (9%) were in hotels, motels, restaurants, and taverns. The rest were in a variety of outlets such as service stations, theatres, and bowling alleys.

Linda Robbins *is a research home economist with the Food Markets Analysis Division, Agriculture Canada.*

FOREIGN STUDENTS AT CANADIAN UNIVERSITIES

by Lynn Barr



Foreign students have long constituted an important component of enrolment[1] in Canadian universities. Since the early 1980s, however, both the number of foreign university students in Canada and their share of total enrolment have fallen.

Overall, the number of foreign university students dropped 28% between 1983 and 1987 from 32,300 to 23,200. As a result, in 1987, they made up only 4% of all enrolment in degree programs, a drop from 6% in 1982.

This downturn reversed an earlier trend. Between 1975 and 1983, the number of foreign students had risen 73% from 18,600 to the 1983 peak of 32,300.

[1] Figures refer to enrolment in degree programs only.

Fewer foreign undergraduates

Almost all of the recent drop in foreign enrolment occurred at the bachelor's and first professional degree level. From 1983 to 1987, the number of foreign students at this level declined 40% from 24,000 to 14,400. Consequently, foreign students' share of total bachelor's enrolment fell from over 5% in 1982 to less than 3% in 1987.

Stable graduate enrolment

By contrast, the number of foreign graduate students rose slightly (7%) from 8,300 in 1983 to 8,800 in 1987. This rate of increase almost matched that of Canadian graduate enrolment. As a result, the proportion of master's and Ph.D. students who were foreign remained around 11% throughout the period.

Most foreign students Asian

Since the mid-1970s, the relative representation of different national origins among foreign students has changed dramatically. The proportion of students from Asia and Africa has increased, while percentages from the United States and Europe have fallen.

In 1987, more than half (54%) of all foreign students in Canada were Asian, up from just over a third (34%) in 1975. This proportion, however, has declined somewhat from a high of 57% in 1983.

The single largest source of Asian students is Hong Kong. In fact, in 1987, almost 6,000 students, representing 25% of all foreign enrolment, were from Hong Kong. Another 7% of foreign students were from China, and 5% were from Malaysia.

The share of foreign enrolment from Africa has also increased substantially. In 1987, about 16% of foreign students, double the proportion in 1975 (8%), were African. Three countries — Kenya, Morocco, and Tunisia — accounted for more than a third of all African students in 1987.

On the other hand, the proportions of students coming from the United States and Europe have fallen. In 1987, 9% of foreign students were from the United States, down sharply from 21% in 1975. During the same period, the proportion from Europe fell from 13% to 11%.

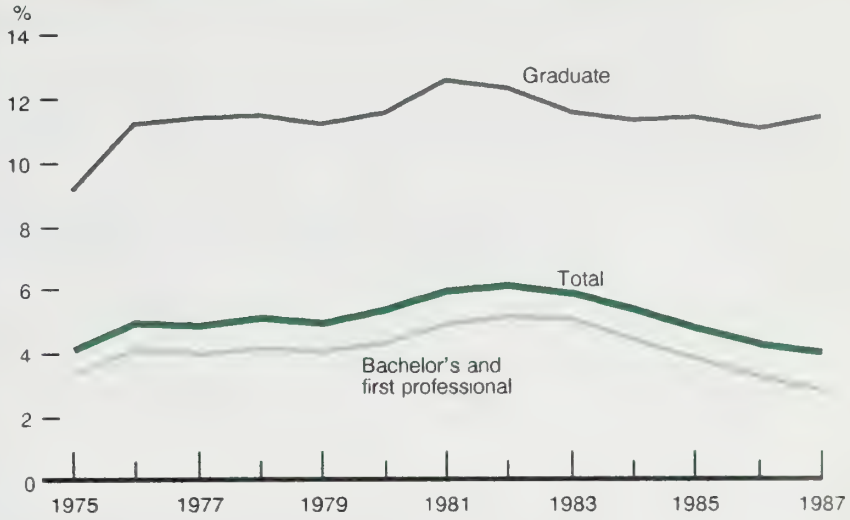
Program choices differ

The fields of study chosen by foreign university students differ from those of their Canadian counterparts. In 1987, at the bachelor's and first professional degree level, foreign students were more likely than Canadian students to enroll in mathematics/physical science, business/commerce, and engineering/applied science. Almost 50% of foreign undergraduates were in one of these programs, compared with just over a quarter (26%) of Canadian undergraduates. On the other hand, foreign students were much less likely than Canadian students to enroll in education, fine and applied arts, humanities, and health professions.

At the graduate level, the concentration of foreign students in relatively few fields was even greater than at the bachelor's level. More than half (54%) of foreign graduate students were enrolled in one of three scientific/technical fields (engineering/applied science, mathematics/physical science, and agriculture/biological science), compared with just 22% of Canadian students. And in contrast to the bachelor's level, a much smaller proportion of foreign graduate students than Canadians were in business/commerce.

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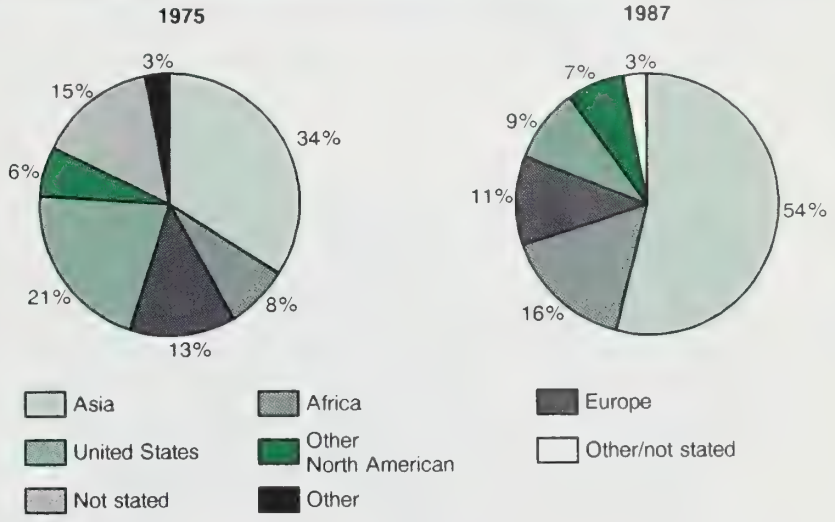
Foreign students as a percentage of total university enrolment, by degree level, 1975-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

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Origin of foreign university students, 1975 and 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

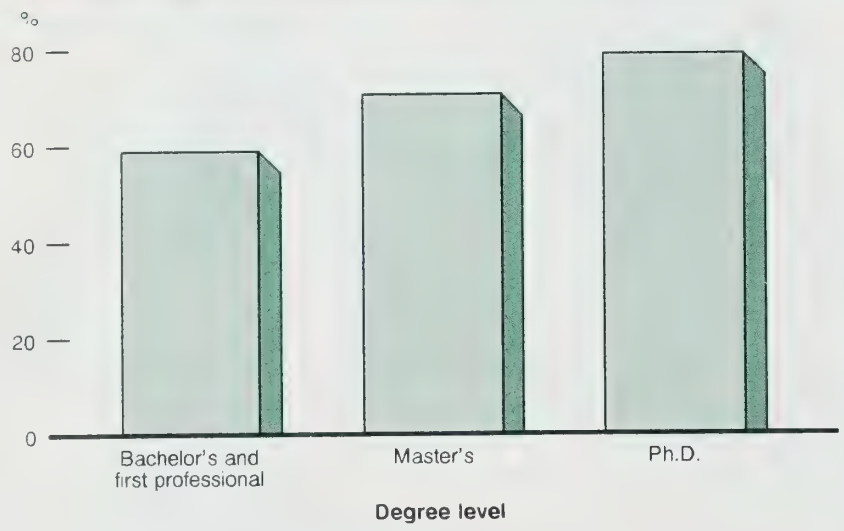
Field of study of foreign and Canadian university students, by degree level, 1987

Field of study	Bachelor's and first professional		Graduate	
	Foreign	Canadian	Foreign	Canadian
	%			
Business/commerce	19	12	7	14
Social science	18	19	15	20
Mathematics/physical science	17	6	20	7
Engineering/applied science	14	8	24	9
Humanities	7	10	11	16
Agriculture/biological science	5	6	10	6
Education	2	12	6	19
Health professions	2	6	6	6
Fine/applied arts	2	4	1	2
General arts and science	14	17	--	--
Not reported	1	1	--	--
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Total number of students	**14,400**	**497,700**	**8,800**	**66,800**

-- amount too small to be expressed
Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Men as a percentage of foreign university students, by degree level, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

Men in the majority

The majority of foreign university students are men. In 1987, close to two-thirds (65%) of all foreign students at Canadian universities were men.

The proportion of men, however, varies according to their country or region of origin. Men made up just over half (51%) the university students from the United States, 62% of those from Hong Kong, and 65% from Europe. Men accounted for considerably higher proportions of students from China (75%) and Africa (81%).

Male domination of the ranks of foreign students increases at higher levels of study. In 1987, men comprised 59% of foreign bachelor's and first professional degree students, 71% of students at the master's level, and 79% at the doctoral level. These proportions were higher than corresponding figures for Canadians: 46% of students at the bachelor's degree level, 52% at the master's level, and 60% at the Ph.D. level were men.

Lynn Barr *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

Foreign students in Canada

The 23,200 foreign students in degree programs at Canadian universities in 1987 represented less than half (43%) of all foreign enrolment in Canada that year. Foreign enrolment also included about 4,000 students in university diploma or certificate programs. As well, close to 16,800 foreign students were enrolled at the elementary-secondary level, and about 10,000 were in community colleges or trade schools.

Differential fees

Differential fees, that is, higher tuition costs imposed on foreign students, may account for part of the recent decline in foreign undergraduate enrolment at Canadian universities.

In 1987, for example, full-time tuition for foreign undergraduates attending Quebec univerisites was about ten times higher than that paid by their Canadian counterparts, while in Ontario, foreign undergraduates were charged almost three and a half times more. The only two provinces that do not impose differential fees are Manitoba and Newfoundland.

New work regulations introduced in early 1988 may help offset the financial problems associated with differential fees. Foreign students may now accept on-campus employment during their study period. Also, they are permitted to work full-time for up to one year after graduation in a field related to their area of specialization.

ETHNIC ORIGINS OF THE CANADIAN POPULATION

by Pamela M. White

At the turn of the century, the Canadian population was made up largely of people representing two major ethnic groupings: British and French. However, successive waves of immigrants from many different countries have resulted in a much more ethnically diverse country. During the first decades of this century and after the Second World War, large numbers of immigrants came to Canada from Western and Eastern Europe, as well as from Scandinavia. In the 1960s, a growing proportion of immigrants came from Southern Europe and the United States; in the 1970s and 1980s, immigrants have come primarily from Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, and Central and South America.



Ethnic origin

Ethnic origin refers to the ethnic or cultural group (or groups) to which Canadians belong; it pertains to the ancestral roots or origins of the population and should not be confused with other variables such as citizenship or nationality.

To better reflect the ethnic diversity of Canada, respondents to the 1986 Census were permitted to report that they had more than one ethnic origin. That year, 28% of Canadians reported more than one ethnic background; of these, 17% reported two origins, 7% gave three origins, and 4% reported four or more.

The current ethnic composition of the population represents a combination of the Canadian-born descendents of the various waves of immigrants, recent arrivals, and the Aboriginal population. By 1986, people with British or French backgrounds still made up the largest ethnic communities; however, neither group accounted for a majority of the population. At the same time, nearly one in four Canadians reported an ethnic background that did not include British or French origins.

Most Canadians British or French

In 1986, people with British and French ethnic backgrounds were the largest ethnic groupings in Canada. People with British backgrounds, that is, those who reported either English, Irish, Scottish, Welsh, or some combination of British origins, made up 34% of the population. Those who reported a French background made up 24% of all Canadians.

In addition, another 5% of people reported a combination of British and French ethnic backgrounds, while 13% reported some combination of British and/or French and other origins.

Many with non-British, non-French roots

People whose ethnic backgrounds do not include either British or French roots also make up a major component of the population. In 1986, 25% of all Canadians reported that they had neither British nor French ethnic origins.

People with European backgrounds have traditionally comprised the largest groups having neither British nor French origins. Overall, in 1986, people reporting a single European background other than British or French made up 16% of the total population. Those reporting German, Italian, and Ukrainian ancestry[1] were the largest of these groups, accounting for 3.6%, 2.8%, and 1.7%, respectively, of all Canadians.

However, as a result of increasing levels of non-European immigration in the 1970s and 1980s, a significant proportion of the population now reports non-European, particularly Asian, backgrounds.

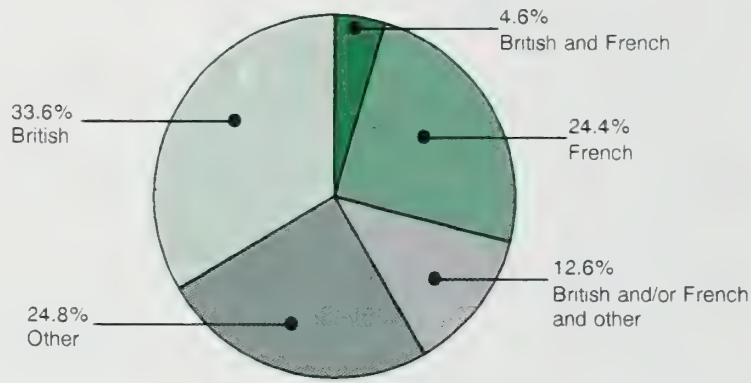
People reporting a single Asian background made up 4% of the overall Canadian population in 1986. Of these, 1.4% reported Chinese origins, while people with South Asian backgrounds, primarily Asian Indians, made up another 1.1%.

The largest single non-European ethnic group, however, are North American Aboriginals. In 1986, over 3/4 of a million people, 3% of the total population, reported some Indian, Inuit, or Métis

[1] Includes only those giving a single ethnic response.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

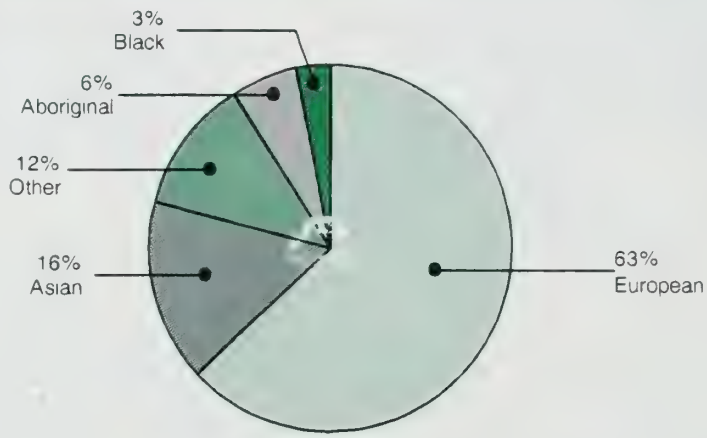
Ethnic origins of Canadians, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Ethnic origins of the non-British, non-French population, 1986

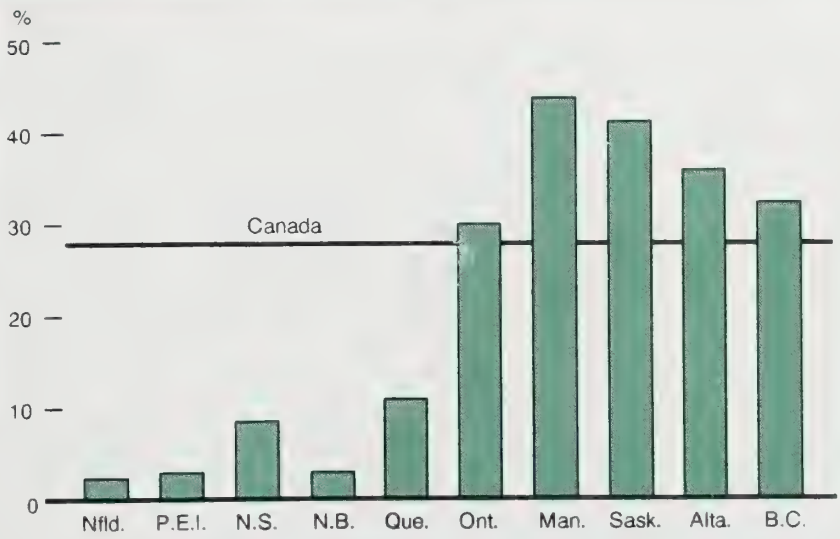


Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of the population with non-British, non-French ethnic origins, by province, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

ancestry. Of these, about half reported a mix of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal origins.

Wide regional variation in ethnicity

The ethnic make-up of the population varies considerably across Canada. While people with British origins made up the largest proportion of the population in all provinces except Quebec, the size of this group ranged from almost 90% of the population in Newfoundland to only 30% in Manitoba and Saskatchewan.

Not surprisingly, most of the population in Quebec, almost 80% in 1986, reported French as their ethnic origin. People with French ancestry also represented about a third of the population of New Brunswick. The proportion of the population reporting French origins was much smaller in the other provinces, ranging from 9% in Prince Edward Island to just 2% in British Columbia and Newfoundland.

There was also wide variation in the proportion of the provincial populations

with origins other than British or French. This grouping made up over 40% of the population in Manitoba and Saskatchewan, over 35% in Alberta, and over 30% in Ontario and British Columbia. By contrast, just 11% of people in Quebec, 9% in Nova Scotia, 3% in New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island, and 2% in Newfoundland reported other ethnic affiliation.

The composition of the population with neither British nor French ethnic origins also varies considerably by province. In the Prairie Provinces, people of German and Ukrainian ancestry were the largest of these ethnic groups. In fact, people giving a single ethnic origin of either German or Ukrainian represented 19% of the population in Saskatchewan, 17% in Manitoba, and 12% in Alberta.

People of German ancestry were also the second largest ethnic group in British Columbia. People of Asian descent, however, made up the next largest ethnic group in this province: 4.0% of British Columbia residents said they had Chinese roots and 2.4% were South Asian in origin.

The western provinces also have relatively large Aboriginal populations. People reporting native ancestry as their only ethnic origin made up 6% of Saskatchewan residents, 5% in Manitoba, and 2% in Alberta and British Columbia. People of Italian descent were the largest non-British, non-French ethnic group in both Ontario and Quebec. Those reporting Jewish ancestry and Aboriginals made up the next largest ethnic groups in Quebec, while in Ontario, people of German and Dutch ancestry were the next most numerous groups.

People giving German ancestry as a single ethnic response made up just under 3% of Nova Scotia residents, while those of Dutch descent represented about 1% of residents of both Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island. As well, just under 1% of Nova Scotia residents reported they were black, the highest provincial figure for this group.

People of Aboriginal descent were the largest ethnic group other than British or French in both Newfoundland and New Brunswick. However, at just over 0.5% of the population, they made up only a small proportion of the residents in each province.

Pamela M. White *is a senior analyst with the Housing, Family, and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

Ethnic origins of the population, by province, 1986

	British	French	British and French	British and/or French and some other	Other	Total	Main other groups (single ethnic responses as a percentage of total population)	
				%				%
Newfoundland	89.0	2.0	4.3	2.4	2.3	100.0	Aboriginal	0.7
							German	0.2
Prince Edward Island	69.1	8.9	12.1	6.7	3.2	100.0	Dutch	1.0
							German	0.4
							Aboriginal	0.3
Nova Scotia	62.7	6.2	9.3	13.1	8.6	100.0	German	2.5
							Dutch	1.1
							Black	0.9
New Brunswick	46.9	33.3	10.0	6.6	3.2	100.0	Aboriginal	0.6
							German	0.5
							Dutch	0.4
Quebec	5.9	77.8	2.7	2.7	11.0	100.0	Italian	2.5
							Jewish	1.3
							Aboriginal	0.8
Ontario	43.8	5.9	5.7	14.3	30.2	100.0	Italian	5.1
							German	3.2
							Dutch	1.9
Manitoba	29.6	5.3	3.4	17.7	44.0	100.0	German	9.2
							Ukrainian	7.6
							Aboriginal	5.3
Saskatchewan	29.8	3.4	2.8	22.5	41.5	100.0	German	12.9
							Ukrainian	6.1
							Aboriginal	5.6
Alberta	34.4	3.3	3.9	22.3	36.1	100.0	German	7.8
							Ukrainian	4.6
							Dutch	2.4
British Columbia	41.8	2.4	3.7	19.6	32.5	100.0	German	5.2
							Chinese	4.0
							South Asian	2.4
Canada	33.6	24.4	4.6	12.6	24.9	100.0	German	3.6
							Italian	2.8
							Ukrainian	1.7

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

YOUNG ADULTS LIVING IN THEIR PARENTS' HOMES

by Monica Boyd and Edward T. Pryor

Recent decades have brought unanticipated turns in family composition and living arrangements among both the young and old. More elderly Canadians are living alone, while, until recently, the young have been leaving their parents' homes at increasingly early ages. In Canada, this latter tendency emerged as a growing trend for young adults to establish their own households, thus emptying the parental nest. Between 1971 and 1981, the percentages of unmarried adults who lived at home declined.

However, recent evidence from the Canadian Census has shown a reversal of this trend between 1981 and 1986. The percentage of unmarried young adults who were living with parents rose over the period 1981-1986.

The shift is particularly noteworthy for unmarried people aged 20-29 in respect to the choices they made between living as unattached individuals (that is, alone or with non-relatives) or living in a family household. As of 1986, six out of ten of these women aged 20-24 were living with one or both parents. Seven out of ten men aged 20-24 were still living with parents. Even by their late twenties, over four out of ten unattached or unmarried men and three out of ten women were living at home.

The increasing percentages of young adults in their twenties who are living at home have contributed to an aging of the entire population of children aged 15-34 living at home. In 1971, slightly more than one-quarter of the young women who lived at home and one-third of the young men were aged 20-29. By 1986, nearly 40% of the unmarried women and nearly half of the unmarried men living with parents were aged 20-29. Not only is a higher percentage of the unattached or unmarried young adult population living at home, but they are also more likely to be older than young adults living at home in previous decades.

The reasons for interest in adult children living with parents are manifold, but two aspects are obvious: (1) recent trends in the living arrangements of young adults go against the grain of the previous long-term momentum of the young to make an early departure from their parents' homes, and (2) the underlying question of explaining such a reversal and its consequences for the understanding of contemporary family life.

In part, the reversal of the previous pattern has been masked by other changes in household formation patterns of Canadians such as living alone, the increase in forms of cohabitation not based on a marriage, and increases in family breakdown.

While each has contributed to a proliferation of residential types and patterns, which taken together have tended to reduce average household size, delayed leaving of the family household and subsequent returns to it have apparently emerged as a countervailing tendency, possibly reflecting changes in marriage patterns and the economic conditions facing young adults today.

Factors in leaving or staying in parental homes

Census data provide the overall pattern with respect to delayed marriage. The percentage of Canadians who had been married by a given age declined between 1976 and 1986, indicating a delay in the timing of marriages. Delayed marriage leaves the other residential options of (1) leaving the parental household for other independent living arrangements either alone or with others or (2) remaining in or returning to the parental home during the years that in previous decades might have been spent in a separate household in the married state.

It appears that an increasing number of unmarried young adults have chosen the second option. They remain in their parents' homes at a time in the family life cycle when parents might once have expected to be freed of direct parental responsibilities. The nest may still be emptying, but the process now extends over a longer transitional period.

Many other factors contribute to a decision to leave a parent's home and to establish a new household. Factors associated with the choice between living at home and establishing a separate household are: sex of the adult children, membership in particular ethnic groups, education level attained, labour force participation, and individual income. Some factors are enabling (e.g., high employment income makes household formation feasible, as does higher educational attainment, which often translates into desirable employment), while other factors are retarding (full-time enrolment in higher education).

Compared with people in their twenties living unattached, unmarried persons in their twenties who were living at home in 1981 were more likely to live in a rural area, to have French as the home language, to have lower levels of educational attainment, to be attending school, to be unemployed or not in the labour force, and to have lower incomes. In 1981, nearly one-quarter of the young unmarried men in rural areas were residing with parents, compared with slightly over 11% of unattached men aged 20-29. For young unmarried women living at home, nearly 30% were in settings in which French was the home language, compared with slightly more than 20% of the unattached population. Over one-third of unmarried people living with parents were attending school, in contrast to the lower school attendance of young adults living alone or with non-relatives. One-quarter of the unmarried-living-at-home population was unemployed or not in the labour force, compared with fewer than 15% of unattached individuals in their twenties. Consistent with the patterns of school attendance and employment, over one-third of the unmarried men and nearly 50% of the unmarried women living with parents had incomes of less than $5,000 in 1980. Approximately two out of ten unattached young women and men had incomes below $5,000.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of unmarried persons aged 20-29 living with parents[1], 1971-1986



[1] Includes never-married, separated, divorced, and widowed persons as a percentage of all unattached individuals living on their own plus unmarried children living at home.
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

Unmarried[1] persons aged 15-34 living with parents, by sex and age, as a percentage[2] of unattached individuals and unmarried persons living in families, 1971-1986

	Men					Women				
	1971	1976	1981	1986	Difference 1986-81	1971	1976	1981	1986	Difference 1986-81
					%					
Percentage of unmarried living with parents										
15-19	93.3	92.7	91.9	92.0	0.1	91.5	90.6	90.5	91.4	0.9
20-24	72.4	70.0	68.1	71.2	3.1	62.1	58.9	59.3	63.3	4.0
25-29	46.8	42.8	40.0	44.6	4.6	34.5	29.0	27.2	31.6	4.4
30-34	35.1	32.7	27.8	28.8	1.0	24.7	20.0	17.1	17.7	0.6
Total 15-34	**78.4**	**75.7**	**71.2**	**69.8**	**-1.4**	**74.4**	**70.2**	**66.1**	**63.9**	**-2.2**
Age profile of unmarried population living at home										
15-19	62.2	61.5	57.4	49.1	-8.3	71.9	71.0	66.2	57.5	-8.7
20-24	28.7	28.7	31.0	34.5	3.5	21.6	22.3	25.8	30.9	5.1
25-29	6.6	7.2	8.4	12.0	3.6	4.5	4.7	5.6	8.4	2.8
30-34	2.5	2.6	3.2	4.4	1.2	2.0	2.0	2.4	3.2	0.8
Total 15-34	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**-**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**-**

[1] Includes never married, separated, divorced, and widowed.
[2] The population at risk (the denominator) consists of all unattached individuals and unmarried persons in economic families. Married people are excluded.
Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

The cluttered nest

When all factors are considered together, there was an increased tendency in the mid-1980s for young adults in their twenties who were not currently married to live continuously in their parents' homes or to return to them. The increase occurred largely between 1981 and 1986, a period that encompassed a severe economic recession and increased time spent in pursuing higher education. The percentage of people in the age group 18-24 enrolled full-time in postsecondary education rose gradually from 19.8% in 1976-77 to 24.5% in 1985-86.

Using 1981 Census data, co-residency with parents rather than living as unattached individuals is seen to be related to low educational attainment, having French as a home langauge, being unemployed or not in the labour force, and with having a low income. School attendance was also an important factor. Some young adults may be effectively trapped in their parents' homes because of the high costs of establishing a separate household, particularly in large urban areas where the costs of accommodation are conspicuously higher than average.

What the effects on family life of delayed leaving, willing or unwilling, may ultimately prove to be are unknown. These findings do raise the possibility that contemporary young adults, unlike their predecessors in the late 1970s, will spend more time in a homelife over which they exert less than full control, possibly in the process adopting their parents' behaviour patterns more thoroughly. Whether as a

Characteristics of unmarried[1] persons aged 20-29 living with parent(s) and as unattached individuals[2], by sex, 1981

	Unmarried living at home		Unattached individuals	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
	%			
Rural/Urban				
Rural	24.9	20.0	11.2	6.2
Urban	75.1	80.0	88.8	93.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Home language				
English	63.8	63.7	77.4	76.9
French	29.7	29.6	20.7	20.6
Other	6.5	6.7	1.9	2.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Education				
Less than grade 9	5.9	4.2	3.3	2.2
Grades 9-13	41.6	35.7	35.5	30.6
Non-university certificate or diploma	27.7	30.8	29.4	32.7
University	24.8	29.3	31.8	34.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Attending school				
Not attending	66.0	60.9	76.1	71.0
Full-time	25.8	29.3	12.2	12.3
Part-time	8.2	9.7	11.7	16.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employment				
Employed	74.3	72.8	87.3	88.2
Unemployed	13.2	10.6	6.8	5.1
Not in the labour force	12.5	16.6	5.9	6.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Income				
Less than $2,500	20.6	29.0	9.2	11.8
$2,500-4,999	16.9	20.3	8.8	12.1
$5,000-7,499	14.5	14.1	10.6	12.9
$7,500-9,999	11.7	12.4	9.8	12.6
$10,000-14,999	20.0	18.0	22.7	28.7
$15,000 and over	16.3	6.2	38.9	21.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Includes never married, separated, divorced, and widowed.
[2] Persons living alone or with non-relatives.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1981 Census of Canada.

Population ever married at selected ages, 1976, 1981, 1986

Age	1976	1981	1986
		%	
19	14	11	8
21	34	29	20
26	75	71	63
31	88	86	82
36	92	91	89

Source: Statistics Canada. Census of Canada.

by-product of pursuing higher education, or because of the relatively low salaries available to the young in the late 1980s, many seem destined to remain in their parents' homes considerably longer than was previously expected. This possibility could indicate a fundamental alteration in the living arrangement patterns of young Canadians relative to previous generations.

But the permanence of this trend is questionable. Continued improvement in economic conditions, were it to be passed on to young adults, might again reverse the growing tendency to stay in one's parents' home; or alternatively, higher levels of enrolment in postsecondary education for longer programs of study could reinforce the existing trend by keeping children at home for even longer periods of time.

Monica Boyd *is a Professor in the Sociology and Anthropology Department at Carleton University and was a Visiting Fellow at Statistics Canada in 1987-88;* **Edward T. Pryor** *is Director-General of the Census and Demographic Statistics Branch, Statistics Canada.*

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LOSING GROUND: WAGES OF YOUNG PEOPLE, 1981-1986

by Ted Wannell



The long-term decline in Canada's birth rate and the aging of the baby boom generation have caused several demographic shifts. One of these is the decrease of the population aged 16-24. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of Canadians in this age group dropped from 4.2 million to 3.8 million. Consequently, the share of the total population accounted for by 16-24-year-olds fell from 17.4% to 15.0%.

It might be expected that reduced labour force competition resulting from a smaller population, combined with rising educational attainment, would tend to increase youth wages. But instead, the inflation-adjusted[1] average hourly wage of young workers was considerably lower in 1986 than in the early part of the decade.

Wages of young workers falling

The average real wage of workers aged 16-24 in 1986 was down almost $1.50 per hour, or 17%, from 1981. In 1986, people in this age bracket earned an average of $7.23 per hour, compared with $8.69 in 1981.

The average hourly wage of 25-34-year-olds was also lower in 1986 than in 1981, although the drop was not as sharp as that for the 16-24 age group. Between 1981 and 1986, the average wage of workers aged 25-34 slipped 5%, from $11.88 to $11.28.

[1] All figures in constant 1986 dollars.

In contrast, average wages for workers aged 35 and over were higher in 1986 than in 1981. The hourly wage of 35-49-year-olds went up almost 6% from $12.62 to $13.33, while the figure for those aged 50-64 rose 8% from $12.03 to $12.97.

Thus, the disparity between the average wage of younger and older workers was wider in 1986 than in 1981. As a result, in 1986, the average hourly wage of workers aged 16-24 was 63% of the national average, compared with 76% in 1981.

Most young workers affected

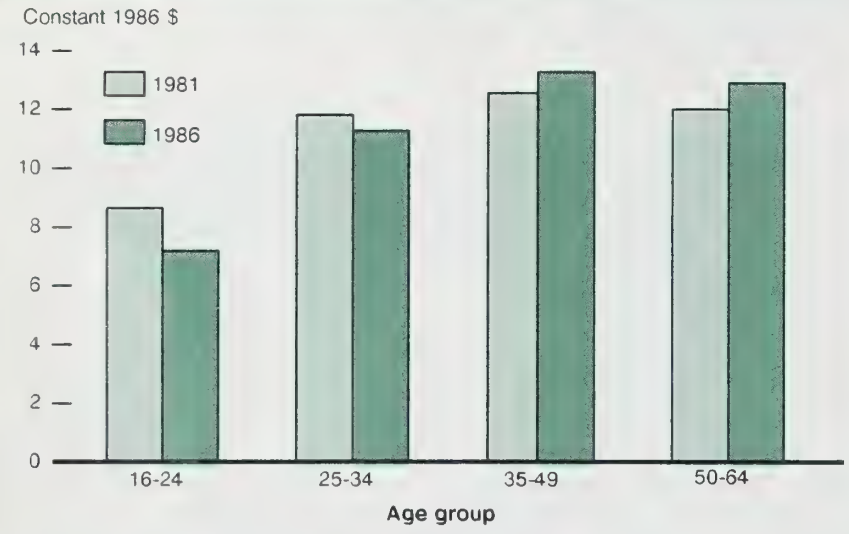
Average youth wages dropped for both men and women, although the decrease was somewhat greater among men than among women. From 1981 to 1986, the average hourly wage of 16-24-year-old men fell 18% from $9.35 to $7.70, while for women the decline was 15% from $7.83 to $ 6.67. Consequently, the wage gap between young men and women narrowed slightly. In 1986, the average hourly wage of women aged 16-24 was 87% that of men, compared with 84% in 1981.

Wage rates also declined for young workers at all levels of education. The drop, however, was somewhat smaller among those with postsecondary qualifications. The average wage of postsecondary graduates aged 16-24 fell 15% between 1981 and 1986, while the decline was 19% for those with a high school education, and 17% for those with less than Grade 12.

Youth wages fell in all regions. The largest declines were in Alberta and British Columbia, although wages of young people in these provinces remained the highest in the country. Between 1981 and 1986, the average wages of 16-24-year-old workers dropped 24% in Alberta and 21% in British Columbia. At the same time, young workers' wages fell 17% in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and the Atlantic provinces, and 14% in Quebec and Ontario.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

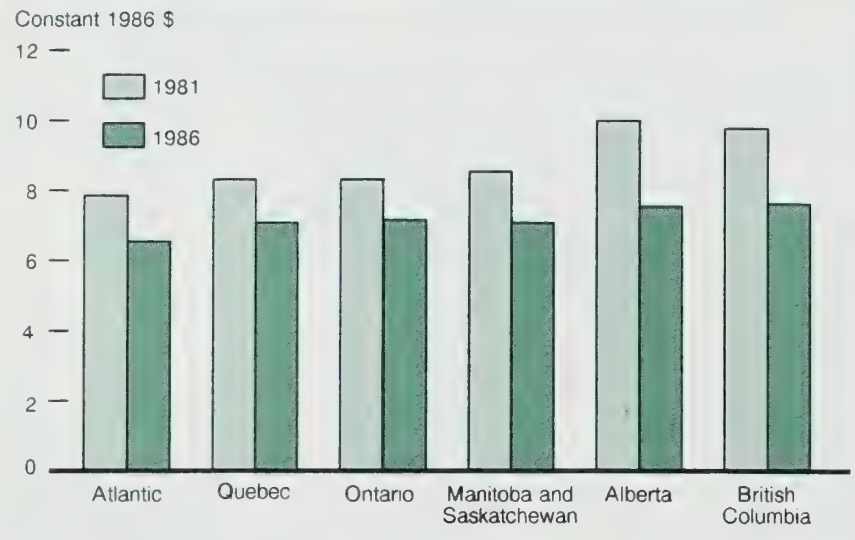
Average hourly wage, by age, 1981 and 1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, 1981 Survey Work of History and 1986 Labour Market Activity Survey.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average hourly wage of people aged 16-24, by region, 1981 and 1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, 1981 Survey Work of History and 1986 Labour Market Activity Survey.

Part-time work increasing

Some of the drop in youth wages is attributable to the rising incidence of part-time work. In 1986, 15% of all youth employment was part-time, up from 10% in 1981. Because part-time workers are generally paid less than their full-time counterparts, the growth of part-time work tends to reduce overall wage rates. In 1986, for example, part-time workers aged 16-24 averaged $5.83 per hour, compared with $7.47 for full-time workers in this age category.

Industrial restructuring

Changes in the structure of the economy also explain some of the decline in young

The data

The 1981 data are from Statistics Canada's Survey of Work History; the 1986 data are from the Labour Market Activity Survey. Both surveys collected information on the pay and hours worked in all jobs respondents held during the survey year.

The data have been calculated to reflect full-time equivalent jobs. One full-time equivalent job equals 2,080 hours or the number of hours in a 40-hour-per-week job during a year. For example, a 10-hour-per-week job held for a full year was counted as a quarter of a full-time equivalent job, while a 40-hour-per-week job lasting six months was counted as half a full-time job.

workers' wages. In the 1980s, youth employment shifted away from several high-paying industries toward those with lower wages, particularly in the service sector. Perhaps even more important, average youth wages fell in all industries.[2]

Between 1981 and 1986, the proportions of young workers employed in four of the five industries with the highest average wages declined. The share of full-time youth employment[3] in natural resource industries, the highest-paying sector for young people, fell from 9% in 1981 to 6% in 1986. At the same time, the proportion in manufacturing dropped from 19% to 15%. There were also declines of around one percentage point in the proportion of youth employment accounted for by each of distributive and public sector service industries. The exception to this pattern was construction, the third-highest-paying sector for workers aged 16-24, where the share of youth employment rose slightly from 6% to 7%.

At the same time, there was a large increase in the proportion of youth employment in consumer services, the second-lowest-paying sector for young workers. Between 1981 and 1986, consumer services' share of youth employment rose from 26% to 36%.

In all industries, however, youth wages declined. Between 1981 and 1986, the average wage of 16-24-year-olds fell 19% in construction and 18% in natural resource industries. In addition, hourly wages of young workers decreased 15% in both agriculture and consumer services.



Declines in the remaining industries ranged from 12% in manufacturing to 7% in business services.

A legacy of the recession

To some extent, the overall drop in youth wages during the 1980s is also a lingering effect of the 1981-82 recession, which was particularly hard on young workers. For example, in 1983, unemployment among 15-24-year-olds was 22% for men and 17% for women; by contrast, for both men and women aged 25 and over, unemployment that year was just above 9%.

Although the economy subsequently recovered, unemployment remained relatively high among 15-24-year-olds. In 1986, 17% of men and 14% of women in this age range were unemployed. These rates compared with around 8% for both men and women aged 25 and over.

Moreover, the recession was the impetus behind much of the industrial and occupational redistribution of employment that put an increasing proportion of young workers in low-wage sectors. The recession also placed roadblocks in the careers of the baby boom population. In fact, youth wages had started falling in the mid-1970s when this large generation began to crowd the labour market. By slowing their advancement, the recession prolonged the labour market congestion for younger people.

On the other hand, the reduction of youth wages in this period may have helped 16-24-year-olds get jobs more quickly than if wages had not declined. By 1988, youth unemployment in Canada had dropped to pre-recession levels, unlike the situation in some Western European economies, where the wages of young people did not fall.

Proportion of full-time employment and average hourly wages of people aged 16-24, by industry, 1981 and 1986

	Distribution of full-time jobs		Average hourly wage	
	1981	1986	1981	1986
	%		Constant 1986 $	
Natural resources	9.3	5.6	11.47	9.42
Distributive services	10.2	9.3	9.41	8.54
Construction	6.4	7.3	10.54	8.52
Public sector services	14.7	14.1	9.38	8.33
Manufacturing	19.4	15.2	9.08	7.97
Business services	10.7	9.8	8.45	7.84
Consumer services	26.4	35.7	7.26	6.20
Agriculture	2.8	3.0	6.14	5.22
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**8.86**	**7.47**

Sources: Statistics Canada, 1981 Survey of Work History and 1986 Labour Market Activity Survey.

[2] For more detail on the relative effects of shifts in employment patterns between industries and wage changes within industries, including the methodology used, see Myles, J., Picot, G., and Wannell, T., *Wages and Jobs in the 1980s: Changing Youth Wages and the Declining Middle*, Statistics Canada, Analytic Studies Branch, Research Paper #17.

[3] This section includes only full-time jobs.

Ted Wannell *is a research analyst with the Social and Economic Studies Division, Statistics Canada.*

MARRYING AND DIVORCING: A STATUS REPORT FOR CANADA

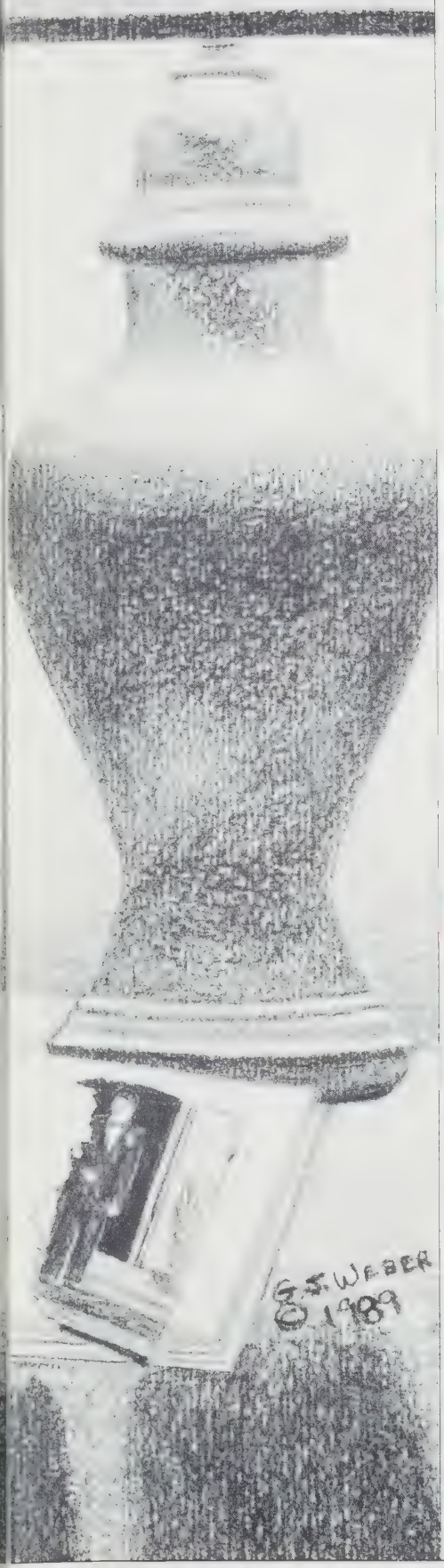
by Owen Adams and Dhruva Nagnur



Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, patterns of marriage and divorce in Canada have changed. During this period, the number of marriages has declined, while the number of divorces has risen. In addition, Canadians are now older when they first marry and are less likely to remarry after divorce or widowhood. As well, the tendency to live common-law is increasing. In 1986, for example, 8% of all people in couples were in common-law relationships.[1]

As a result of these trends, Canadians now spend a smaller proportion of their lives in a marriage than was the case just a decade ago. The vast majority of adults, however, still marry and most Canadians continue to live in some kind of family setting.

[1] People living common-law were not included among those who were married.



Fewer, later marriages

Generally, Canadians are waiting longer before they marry. In 1986, the average age at first marriage was 28 years for men and 26 years for women. For both, this was an increase of 3 years since the early 1970s.

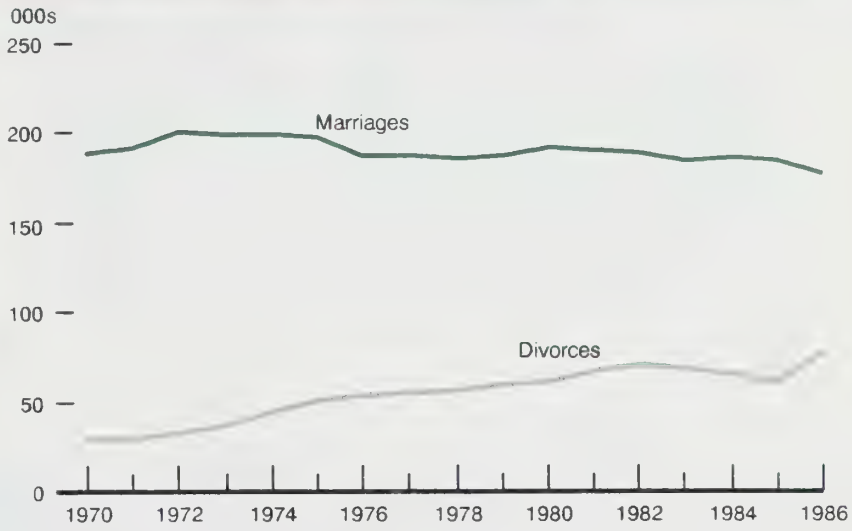
In addition, a growing proportion of Canadians never marry. An analysis completed in 1985 suggested that, at that time, 17% of men and 14% of women would never marry. These figures were up from 10% and 8%, respectively, in 1971.

Nonetheless, the vast majority of Canadians still get married. It was projected in 1985 that about 85% of the population would marry sometime during their lives; this was down, however, from 91% in 1971.

Overall, the annual number of marriages fell from 200,000 in 1972 to 176,000 in 1986. This decline occurred despite the coming of age of the postwar baby boom generation.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

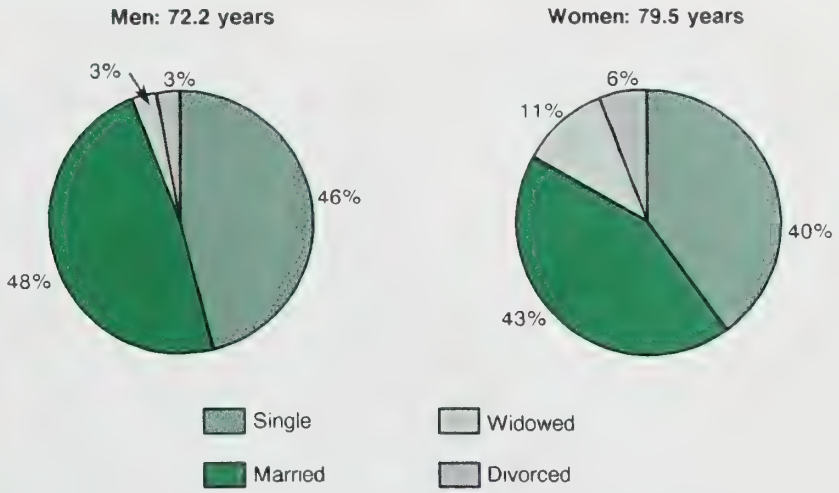
Marriages and divorces, 1970-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-205.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of total life spent in different marital statuses, by sex, 1984-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-536.

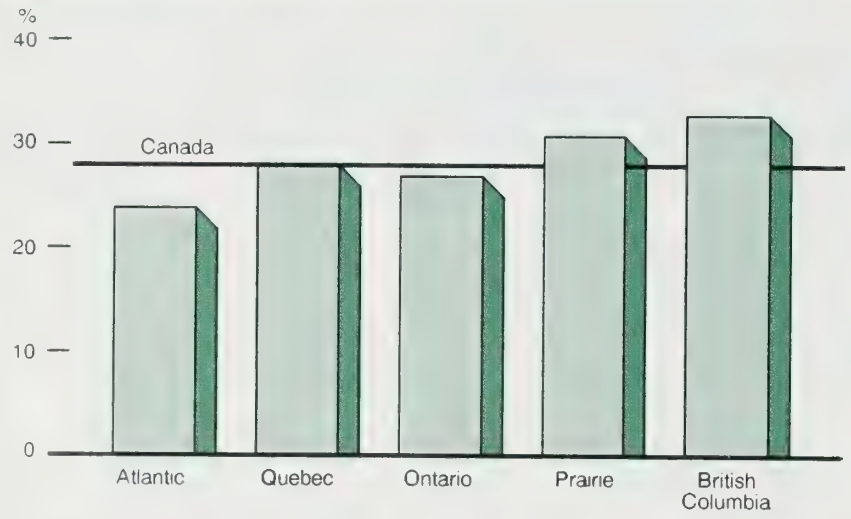
As well, marriages do not last as long as they did in the past. In 1985, the average length of marriage was 31 years, down from 35 years in 1971.

When second and subsequent marriages are included, Canadians spend about 45% of their lives in a marital relationship, a drop from an estimated 55% in the early 1970s.

The average proportion of life spent married differs for men and women. Men can expect to be married for close to half (48%) their lives, compared with 43% for women. This discrepancy occurs largely because women tend to outlive men by a considerable margin, and as a result, spend more years alone after their husbands have died.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of marriages ending in divorce, by region, 1984-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-536.

Marriage and divorce in Canada and the United States

Although Canada and the United States share many cultural influences, marriage and divorce statistics in the two countries differ significantly. While roughly the same percentage of Canadians and Americans marry, a much higher proportion of American marriages, 44% compared with 28% in Canada, end in divorce. As well, the average length of marriage in the United States is 24 years compared with 31 years in Canada.

Nevertheless, Americans can expect to live in a marriage almost as long as Canadians, although they will marry more often to do so. Remarriage rates for both men and women are higher in the United States than in Canada.

Marriage and divorce trends in Canada (1984-1986) and the United States (1983)

	Men		Women	
	Canada	United States	Canada	United States
		%		
Population ever marrying	83	84	86	88
Marriages ending in divorce	28	44	28	44
Widowed persons remarrying	14	19	5	7
Divorced persons remarrying	76	85	64	76

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-536.

Divorce and remarriage

Although marriage has traditionally been perceived as a lifelong commitment, a growing proportion of married couples divorce. In 1971, about one in five marriages was expected to end in divorce; by the mid-1980s, this figure was nearly one in three. In 1986, there were over 78,000 divorces in Canada, up from 30,000 in 1971.

Although divorce is more frequent than in the past, many divorced people remarry. In 1985, for example, at least one partner in 27% of all marriages was divorced.

However, remarriage after divorce is now less likely than in the early 1970s. An estimated 76% of divorced men in 1985 could expect to remarry, down from 85% in 1971. For women, the figure fell from 79% to 64% in the same period.

The increasing proportion of marriages ending in divorce and the decline in the likelihood of remarriage mean that people spend more years divorced. It was estimated in the mid-1980s that women would be divorced for an average of 5 years and men for 3 years. For both, the estimated average length of divorce has increased since 1971, when the figures were just over 2 years for women and 1 year for men.

Till death do us part

While 30% of couples eventually divorce, 70% remain married until one partner dies. Given that women are usually younger than their husbands and because women's life expectancy is longer than that for men, it is the husbands that most often die first. As a result, women tend to be widowed for considerably longer periods than men. As of 1985, women spent an average of 8 years, or 11% of their lives widowed compared to an average of just 2 years, or 3% of their lives, for men.

Both widows and widowers are now less likely to remarry than in the past. In 1985, 5% of widows could expect to remarry, compared with 9% in 1971. For widowers, the corresponding proportions were 14% in 1985 and 24% in 1971.

Moreover, widows and widowers who remarry tend to be relatively young. On average, widows who remarry are 11 years younger than all widows, while for widowers the difference is 9 years.

Regional variations

Trends in marriage, divorce, and remarriage are fairly uniform across the country, although there are some notable exceptions. In particular, there are several sharp differences between Quebec and the rest of Canada. For example, while an estimated 15% of all Canadians will never marry, the figure exceeds 23% in Quebec. As well, Quebec residents tend to wait longer than people in the rest of the country before marrying; both men and women remain single nearly five years longer in Quebec than in any other region.

As well, people in Quebec are considerably less likely to remarry after divorce than are residents of other regions. For Quebec, 62% of divorced men and 47% of divorced women could expect to remarry, whereas the figures for Canada overall were 76% for men and 64% for women.

The incidence of divorce also varies by region. Estimates of the proportion of marriages that would end in divorce ranged from fewer than a quarter in the Atlantic provinces to almost a third in British Columbia.

Both authors work at Statistics Canada. **Owen Adams** *is a senior analyst with the Health Division, and* **Dhruva Nagnur** *is a senior demographer with the Social and Economic Studies Division.*

• More information on this topic is available from Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-536, *Marriage, Divorce and Mortality*.

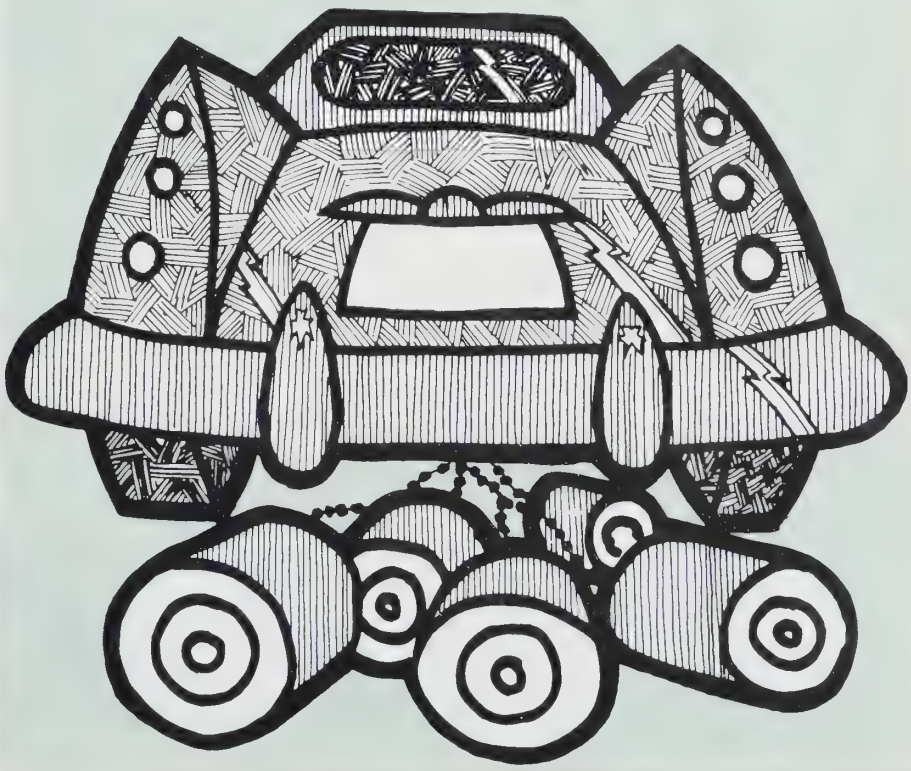
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Marriage, Divorce and Mortality, Catalogue No. 84-536 is available for $35 per copy (in Canada); $36 per copy (other countries) and can be ordered by writing or mailing the enclosed order form to ☐ Publication Sales, Statistics Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6 ☐ For faster service, using Visa or MasterCard, call 1-800-267-6677. ☐ All cheques or money orders should be made payable to the Receiver General for Canada/Publications. For more information about other Statistics Canada publications, contact a Regional Office near you.



EMPLOYMENT OF HUMANITIES AND SCIENCE GRADUATES

by Glenn Wheeler



In 1986, more than 1.25 million Canadians, about 6% of the population aged 15 and older, held bachelor's degrees.[1] While a university degree usually ensures certain employment advantages, these vary according to the field in which that degree was earned. One assumption about this is that graduates of scientific or technical programs may fare better in the labour market than those who graduated from a cultural field of study.

[1] This figure excludes people who have medical degrees or graduate degrees (master's or doctoral) beyond the bachelor's level.

This is confirmed when employment outcomes for bachelor's degree-holders in mathematics/physical science[2] (a relatively technical group of disciplines) are compared with outcomes for graduates in the humanities[3] (disciplines that tend to be more cultural).

Data from the 1986 Census show that mathematics/physical science graduates were generally more likely to be employed, and had higher earnings than humanities graduates. However, bachelor's degree-holders in both humanities and science had better employment outcomes than did the population as a whole.

High employment rate for science graduates

Overall, in 1986, the proportion of people with bachelor's degrees in mathematics/physical science who were employed was higher than the corresponding proportion of humanities graduates.

Among men, 90% of science graduates aged 25-34 were employed, compared with 87% of humanities graduates in the same age group. The corresponding figures for men aged 35-44 and 45-54 were higher, but the gap persisted: 95% of science graduates and 92% of those with humanities degrees were employed.

The pattern was similar among women under age 45, as the proportion of science graduates with jobs exceeded the corresponding proportion of humanities graduates. However, at ages 45-54, the trend reversed, and the employment level of women with humanities degrees (76%) was above that of science graduates(73%).

Nonetheless, employment levels among people with bachelor's degrees in either science or humanities were substantially above those of the total population. For instance, in 1986, 81% of humanities and 87% of science graduates aged 25-34 were employed, compared with 75% of all 25-34-year-olds.

Lower unemployment among science graduates

Science bachelor's degree-holders also tended to have lower unemployment rates than did humanities graduates.

In 1986, 6.2% of male science graduates aged 25-34 were unemployed, compared with 8.2% of humanities graduates. Unemployment rates dropped at older ages, but the difference remained, with lower rates among science than among humanities degree-holders.

As well, among women younger than 45, unemployment was lower for those with science degrees than for humanities degree-holders. This pattern did not hold at ages 45-54, as female science graduates had a higher unemployment rate than did

[2] Includes mathematics, actuarial science, applied mathematics, mathematical statistics, chemistry, geology, metallurgy and materials science, meteorology, oceanography and marine sciences, physics, and general science.

[3] Includes history, English language and literature, French language and literature, philosophy, religious studies, mass media studies, library and records science, classics, and other humanities.

Recent graduates

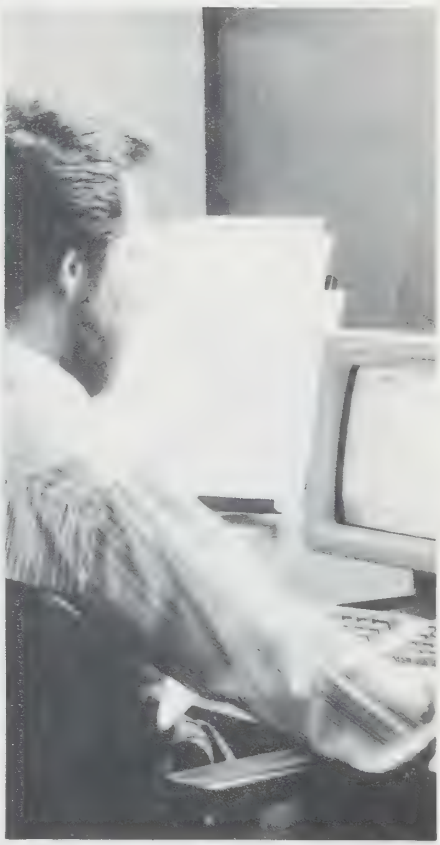
In 1987, about 11,000 people graduated from Canada's universities with a bachelor's degree in the humanities, and another 7,600 earned a degree in mathematics/physical science. Since 1980, however, the number of mathematics/physical science graduates increased much faster (up 75%) than did the number of people earning bachelor's degrees in the humanities (up 17%). As a result, although humanities graduates still outnumbered science degree recipients, the latter accounted for a larger proportion of all bachelor's degree graduates in 1987 than they did in 1980: 7% compared with 5%. At the same time, the proportion of humanities graduates remained almost constant at close to 11%.

In both 1980 and 1987, the majority of mathematics/physical science graduates were men, while the majority in humanities were women. Women made up 28% of people who received bachelor's degrees in mathematics/physical science in 1987, the same proportion as in 1980. In humanities, however, women's representation increased from 60% of all graduates in 1980 to 63% in 1987.

Percentage of science and humanities bachelor's degree-holders employed, compared with total population, by age and sex, 1986

Age and sex	Degree-holders in		Total population
	Mathematics/ physical science	Humanities	
	%		
25-34			
Men	90.3	87.2	85.8
Women	80.4	76.1	65.4
Total	87.2	80.6	75.5
35-44			
Men	94.7	91.6	88.7
Women	77.0	75.1	65.9
Total	90.2	82.5	77.3
45-54			
Men	94.8	92.5	85.8
Women	73.0	76.3	57.6
Total	90.1	84.0	71.7

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.



women with humanities degrees: 6.0% compared with 4.0%.

At all ages, however, unemployment was less prevalent among both humanities and science graduates than in the labour force as a whole. For example, while 6.5% of people aged 25-34 with science degrees and 8.5% of those with humanities degrees were unemployed in 1986, the figure for all 25-34-year-olds was 10.3%. Unemployment rates were lower at older ages, but the disparity persisted.

Science graduates earn more

The employment income of science graduates who worked full-time all year was higher than that of humanities graduates.

Average 1985 earnings of men aged 25-34 with bachelor's degrees in the humanities ($28,300) were 82% of what their contemporaries with science degrees ($34,700) earned. The difference was slightly less at ages 35-44, with humanities graduates earning $37,700 or 86% of the $44,000 earned by men with science degrees. However, at ages 45-54 the gap widened; humanities graduates earned just 80% of what men with science degrees did—$40,100 compared with $50,400.

The earnings' discrepancy was not as great among women as among men. Average 1985 earnings of women aged 25-34 with a bachelor's degree in the humanities were 84% of those of women with science degrees: $24,500 compared with $29,200. For women over age 35, the gap closed considerably. Female humanities graduates aged 35-44 averaged $31,600 or 94% of the $33,500 earned by science graduates. At ages 45-54, humanities graduates averaged $32,400 or 95% of what science graduates were earning ($34,100).

Smaller earnings gap in humanities

While men in both fields of study earned considerably more than women, the difference was less pronounced among humanities graduates than among science degree-holders.

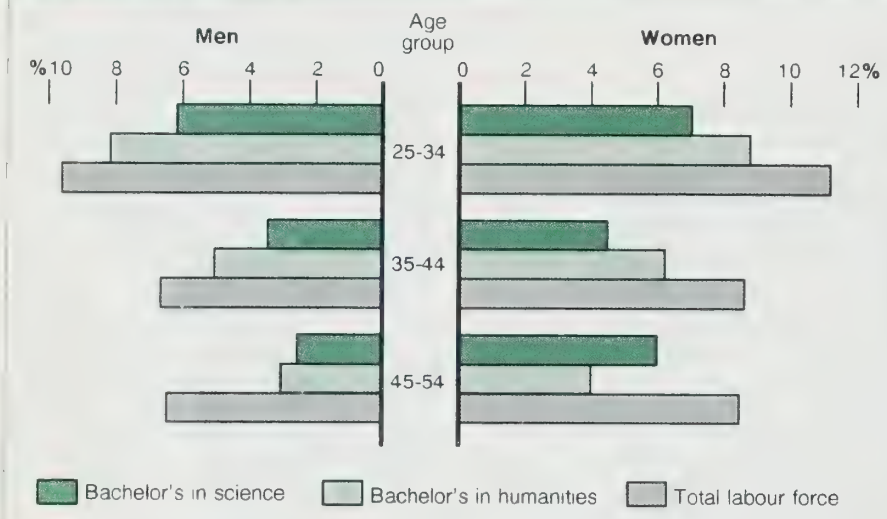
The earned income of women aged 25-34 with bachelor's degrees in humanities was 87% of that of their male counterparts; for women of the same age with science degrees, the figure was 84%. By ages 45-54, women with humanities degrees earned 81% of what comparable men were earning, but for science graduates, women's earnings amounted to only 68% of those of men.

Nonetheless, earnings of women with bachelor's degrees in either humanities or science were still closer to comparable men's earnings than was the case for all full-time year-round workers. At ages 25-34, all women working full-time year-round earned 74% of what men of the same age were earning; by ages 45-54, women's earnings averaged just 60% of those of men.

Glenn Wheeler *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Unemployment rate of science and humanities graduates and total labour force, by age and sex, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Women's employment income as a proportion of men's[1] for science and humanities graduates, by age, 1986



[1] Full-time, full-year workers.
Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,912.8
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.2
Immigration[1]	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	150,898
Emigration[1]	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	41,003
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	693	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	11,001	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244
- goods sector (000s)	3,711	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693
- services sector (000s)	7,290	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550
Total unemployment (000s)	898	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031
Unemployment rate	7.5	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8
Part-time employment (%)	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4
Women's participation rate	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1987 $	38,533	36,974	36,344	36,335	37,737	38,472	38,851	*
% of families with low income	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	12.6	11.8	11.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	64.9	65.8	65.9	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,972.5[p]	*
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.2	*
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	*
Government expenditure on education (1988 $000,000)	29,996.8	30,132.0	30,674.2	30,194.6	32,400.6	31,499.7	32,106.3	31,773.7
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	19.7	*
- women	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	5.4	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	36.7	-	34.0	-	33.1	30.8	*	*
- women	28.9	-	28.3	-	27.8	25.8	*	*
Government expenditure on health (1988 $000,000)	27,054.2	28,152.2	29,661.2	29,647.2	31,866.4	32,625.4	33,889.1	35,217.6
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	666	685	692	714	749	808	856	*
- property	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	*
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1988 $000,000)	126,645.4	135,492.6	141,944.0	143,616.2	150,843.4	152,381.7	155,112.3	156,793.8
- as a % of total expenditures	57.0	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.9	59.3	58.9	59.2
- as a % of GDP	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.8	27.7	27.0	26.2
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.0
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	+3.7	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.6	+3.2	+4.0	+4.4
Annual inflation rate (%)	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1
Urban housing starts	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635

- Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

Correction: Spring 1989 Issue (p. 31) - Social Indicators. Income section, Median family income line was reported incorrectly in current dollars and not in 1987 constant dollars.

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Correction: Winter 1988 Issue (p. 15) - Glossary of terms. Clarification of the term "Indian Register" is as follows:

Since April 17, 1985 a non-Indian woman who marries an Indian man does not automatically gain Indian status and, conversely, an Indian woman who marries a non-Indian man does not lose her status. However, the children of such marriages are entitled to be registered as Indians under the new legislation (Bill C-31).

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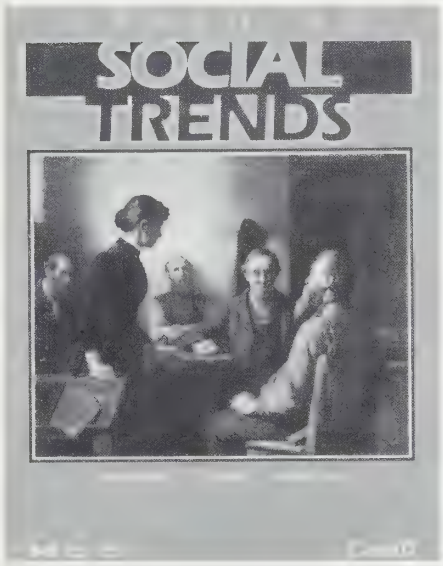
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About the artist:

Robert Harris was born in Wales in 1849 and moved to Canada at an early age. As a teenager, Mr. Harris worked as a land surveyor and taught himself to draw and paint. At age 23, he commenced formal art training in Halifax, and later continued his studies in Boston, London, and Paris. In 1883, the Dominion Government commissioned him to paint the Fathers of Confederation. The painting was lost in the fire that destroyed most of the Parliament Buildings a few years later. Later in life, failing eyesight limited his drawing and painting activity. Mr. Harris died in Montreal in 1919.

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CANADA'S IMMIGRANT POPULATION

by Jane Badets

Immigrants have always made up an important component of the Canadian population with each successive wave of immigrants leaving its own distinct mark on Canadian society. Over the years, they have provided labour, capital, and creativity for the development of the country. In addition, the importance of the immigrant population may grow in the future if the fertility rate in Canada continues to fall.

The share of the population made up of immigrants has remained relatively stable during the last several decades. Changes have occurred, however, in the numbers coming from different parts of the world. As well, because immigrants tend to settle in certain regions, their influence is felt unevenly across the country.



Overall, in 1986, 3.9 million immigrants were living in Canada.[1] They represented 16% of the total population, about the same proportion recorded in each census since 1951.

The relative stability in the immigrant component of the population in the last three decades represents a change from the first half of the century when the figure fluctuated. In 1901, for example, just 13% of the population were immigrants. However, as a result of the large influx of people into the country in the early 1900s, immigrants' share of the population jumped to 22% by 1911, and remained at that level through the 1931 census period.

When they arrived; where they come from

Canada's immigrant population is split evenly between those who arrived before and after 1967. Half (50%) of all immigrants living in Canada in 1986 arrived before 1967, while 31% came between 1967 and 1977, and 19% arrived during the last decade.

There have been major changes, though, in the distribution of immigrants from different parts of the globe. In particular, the proportions originating in Asia and other non-European areas has increased, while the share from Europe has declined.

People born in Asia make up the largest group of recent arrivals, accounting for 40% of all immigrants living in Canada who came to this country between 1978 and 1986. In contrast, Asians represented only 11% of those who arrived before 1978.

There were also substantial increases in the proportion of immigrants from several other non-European areas. For example, people from the Caribbean, and Central and South America made up 15% of immigrants living in Canada in 1986 who arrived in the last decade, whereas they represented only 7% of those who came before 1978. Similarly, the proportion of the immigrant population from Africa and the Middle East rose from 4% of pre-1978 arrivals to 8% of those who arrived between 1978 and 1986.

At the same time, the proportion of all immigrants who were born in Europe fell from 70% of those who arrived before 1978 to fewer than 30% of those who came during the last decade.

Europeans, though, still made up the largest share of all immigrants living in Canada in 1986, accounting for 10% of the total Canadian population. Immigrants from Asia represented another 3% of all Canadians, while people born in the Caribbean and Central and South America, Africa and the Middle East, and the United States each accounted for about 1% of the overall population.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

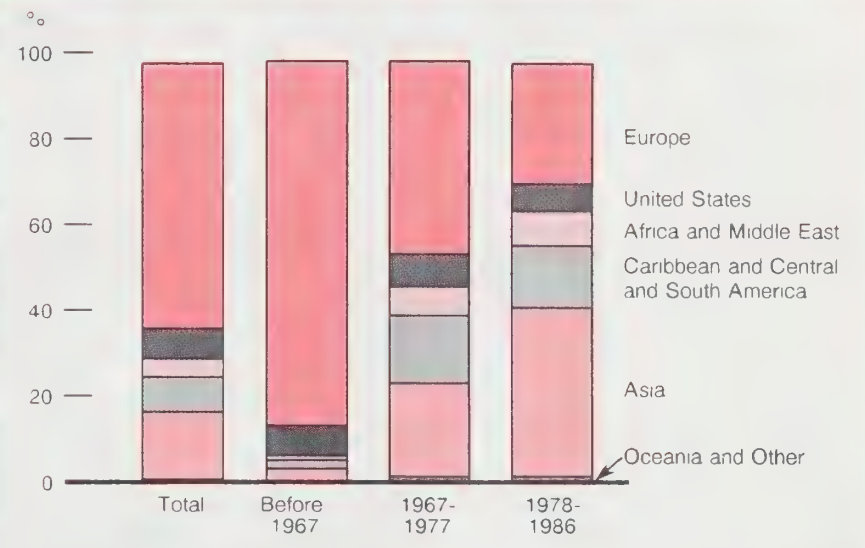
Immigrants as a percentage of total population, 1901-1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Immigrant population, by place of birth and period of immigration, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Provincial concentration

Over the years, immigrants have tended to settle in certain regions of the country. For example, in 1986, over nine out of ten immigrants lived in just four provinces: Ontario, Quebec, British Columbia, and Alberta.

There were particularly large concentrations of immigrants in Ontario and British Columbia; in each province, immigrants made up close to one of every four residents in 1986. Immigrants also made up 16% of the population in Alberta and 14% in Manitoba.

[1] The data in this article refer to the number of immigrants living in Canada at the time of the 1986 Census.

On the other hand, immigrants comprised only 8% of the population in Quebec, 7% in Saskatchewan, and fewer than 5% in each of the Atlantic provinces.

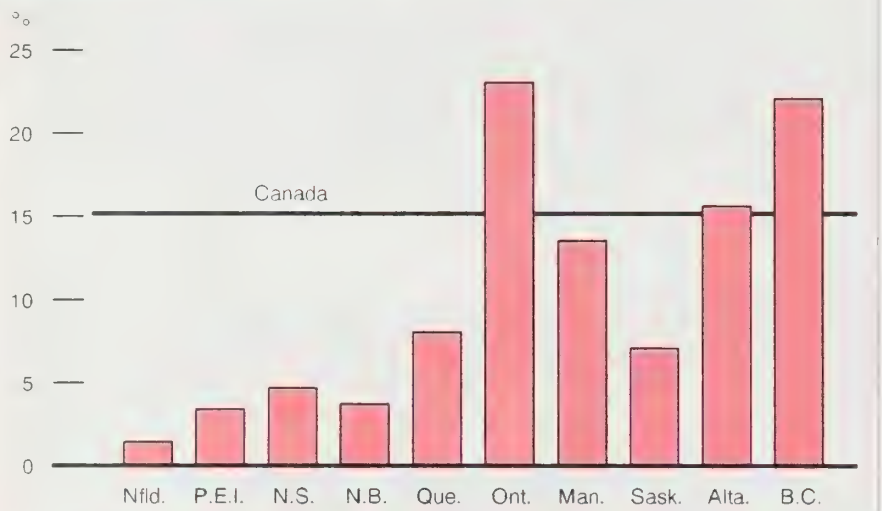
Most immigrants in major urban areas

Immigrants are also more likely than the overall population to live in large cities. While fewer than one-third of all Canadians lived in Toronto, Montreal, or Vancouver in 1986, more than half the immigrant population lived in one of these areas. In fact, almost a third (32%) of all immigrants lived in the Toronto metropolitan area.

Toronto had the largest immigrant population of any metropolitan area. In 1986, 36% of people living in Toronto were immigrants. Immigrants also made up almost 30% of Vancouver residents.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Immigrants as a percentage of provincial populations, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Occupational distribution of immigrants and non-immigrants, by sex, 1986

	Men		Women	
	Immigrants	Non-immigrants	Immigrants	Non-immigrants
	%			
Professional	16.1	12.4	18.9	21.3
Managerial	13.5	12.4	7.5	7.8
Clerical	5.9	7.0	28.2	34.7
Sales	7.4	9.1	8.5	9.6
Service	11.6	9.9	17.5	15.8
Primary	3.9	8.8	2.2	2.6
Processing	10.0	7.8	3.1	2.2
Product fabricating	12.4	9.4	10.1	2.9
Construction	10.0	10.1	0.3	0.3
Other	9.3	13.1	3.7	2.8
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

There were also relatively large immigrant populations in most major urban areas in southern Ontario and the Western provinces. On the other hand, immigrants generally made up smaller proportions of the population in cities in Quebec and the Atlantic provinces.

An older population

The age composition of the immigrant population differs markedly from that of non-immigrants. Specifically, the immigrant group has both a higher proportion of older people and a lower proportion of children than non-immigrants.

In 1986, 17% of immigrants, compared with 9% of non-immigrants, were aged 65 and over. The situation was reversed at the other end of the age scale where only 5% of immigrants, but 25% of non-immigrants, were younger than age 15.

More with university degrees

Immigrants are more likely than non-immigrants to have a university education. In 1986, 12% of immigrants aged 15 and over had a university degree, compared with 9% of non-immigrant adults.

At the same time, a greater proportion of immigrants had less than Grade 9 education. Nearly one-quarter (23%) of immigrants aged 15 and over living in Canada in 1986 had less than Grade 9, compared with 16% of non-immigrants.

Immigrant women were particularly likely to have relatively little formal education. Over a quarter (26%) of these women had less than Grade 9, compared with 16% of non-immigrant women and 20% of immigrant men.

Low levels of schooling were most common among immigrant women who came to Canada before 1967; almost a third (32%) of them had less than Grade 9.

Immigrants in the labour force

Overall, immigrants are somewhat less likely than non-immigrants to participate in the labour force. In 1986, 76.4% of all immigrant men, compared with 77.7% of non-immigrant men, were in the labour force. Immigrant women also had a lower overall participation rate than non-immigrant women: 53.5% compared with 56.5%.

However, the labour force participation of immigrants varies considerably depending on their age and length of residence in Canada. For example, among people aged 25-44, immigrants had a slightly higher labour force participation rate than

During the 1980s, the annual volume of immigration to Canada has fluctuated. The total number of immigrants fell from around 140,000 in 1980 to just over 84,000 in 1985, the lowest annual figure since the early 1960s. However, the number rose in each of the next three years, bringing the 1988 total to over 150,000, the highest level in more than a decade.

The largest group of 1988 immigrants (42%) came from Asia. Europe accounted for another 23%, while 14% came from North and Central America, 9% from the Caribbean, 7% from South America, and 5% from Africa.

During the 1980s, the proportion of immigrants claiming refugee status has generally been less than 20%. For example, in 1988, the figure was 17%.

non-immigrants. In 1986, 95.3% of immigrant men in this age group were in the labour force, compared with 94.8% for non-immigrant men. The rate for immigrant women in this age range was 75.1%, compared with 72.6% for non-immigrants.

Labour force participation rates of immigrants tend to increase with the length of residence in Canada. Of immigrant men aged 25-44, 96.3% of those who arrived more than 20 years ago were in the labour force, compared with just 87.1% of those who had lived in Canada three years or less. This trend was similar for immigrant women.

A different occupational profile

The occupational distribution of immigrants is different from that of non-immigrants.

Among men, the largest difference is in professional occupations. In 1986, 16% of immigrant men, compared with 12% of non-immigrant men, worked in professional jobs.

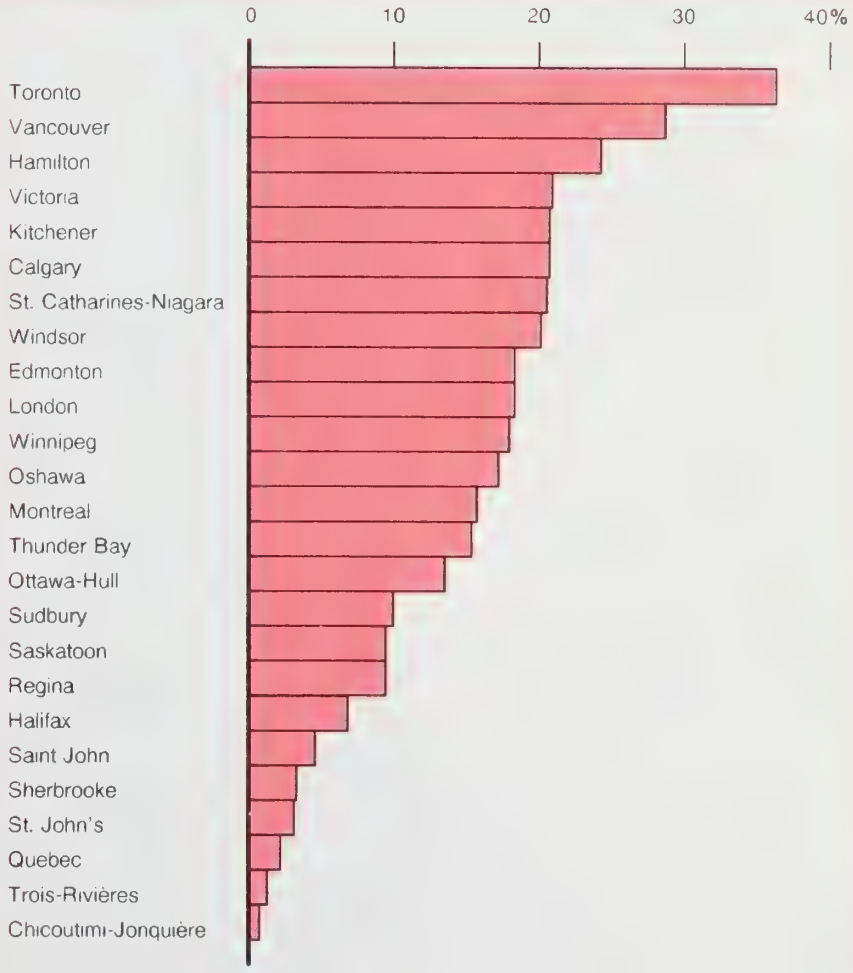
Immigrant men were also more likely than non-immigrants to be employed in managerial, product fabricating, processing, and service positions. On the other hand, comparatively few immigrant men worked in primary, clerical, or sales occupations.

There are also differences in the occupational distribution of immigrant and non-immigrant women. Immigrant women were three times more likely than their



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Immigrants as a percentage of metropolitan populations, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

non-immigrant counterparts to be employed in product fabricating, mainly as garment workers and sewing machine operators. In 1986, 10% of immigrant women, compared with 3% of non-immigrants, were employed in these occupations.

Immigrant women were also more likely than non-immigrants to work in service occupations, while they were less likely to be employed in clerical, sales, or professional positions.

Employment income

Generally, immigrant men earn more than comparable non-immigrants, whereas the opposite is true for women. The average earned income of immigrant men who worked full time in 1985 was $31,800, compared with $30,200 for non-immigrant men. On the other hand, immigrant women working full time earned only $19,700, compared with $20,100 for similar non-immigrant women.

The trend was similar for those in the prime working ages. Immigrant men aged 25-44 employed full time in 1985 had an average employment income of $31,700, compared with $30,500 for non-immigrants. At the same time, immigrant women earned an average of $20,400 compared with $21,300 for non-immigrant women.

The income earned by immigrants varies according to their length of residence in Canada. For instance, men aged 25-44 who arrived before 1967 earned an average of $34,100 in 1985; this compared with an average of $22,900 earned by men who came to Canada between 1983 and 1986. Among women aged 25-44, those who immigrated before 1967 earned an average of $22,100 in 1985, compared with only $14,000 for those who had been in Canada three years or less.

Jane Badets *is an analyst with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

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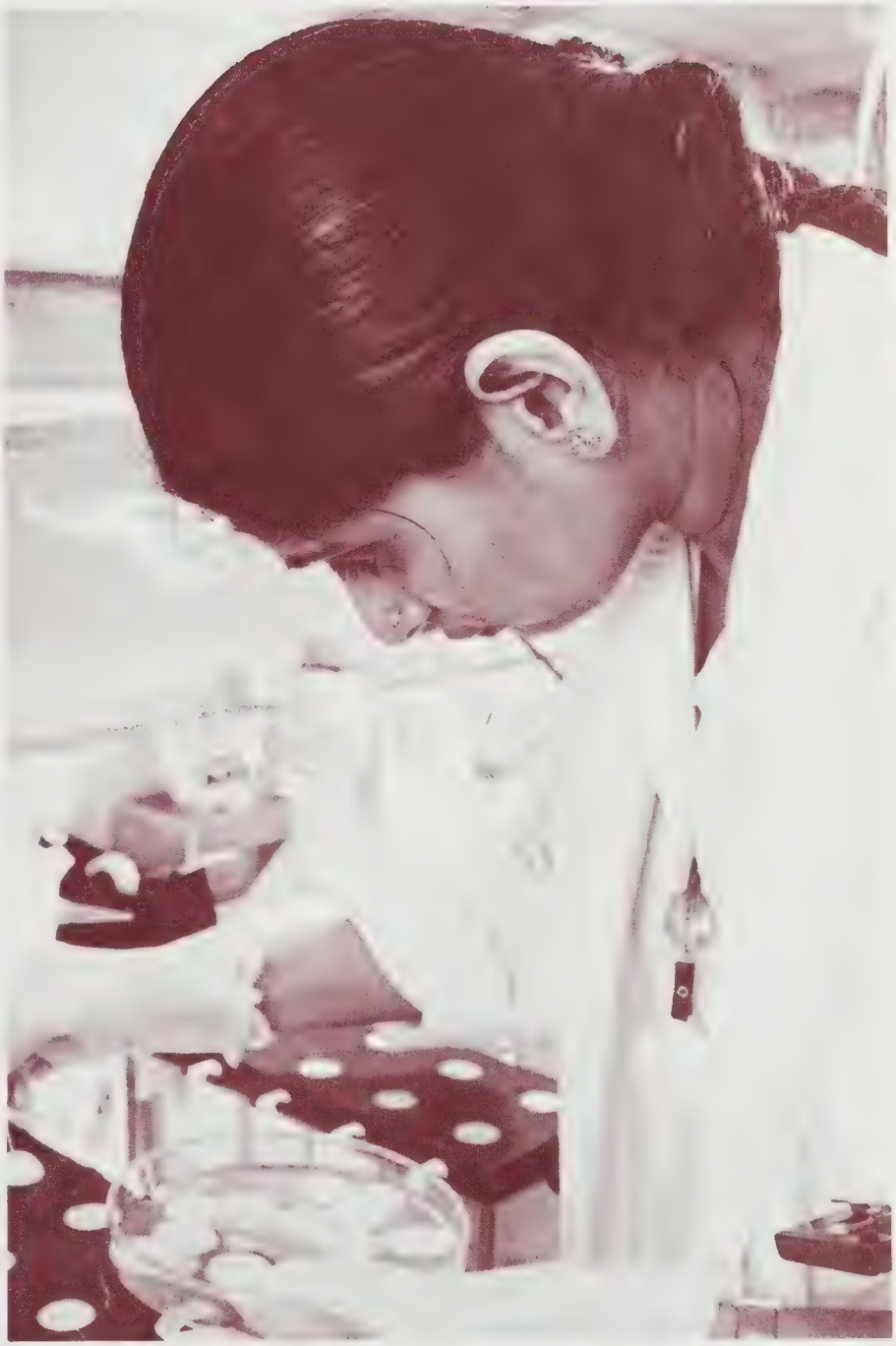
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SOUTH ASIANS IN CANADA

by Pamela M. White and Atul Nanda

People who trace their ethnic origin to countries such as India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Bangladesh account for a small but significant proportion of Canada's population. In 1986, these people, collectively identified as South Asians, numbered just over 314,000, and they made up 1.3% of the total Canadian population.



Most South Asians immigrants

The majority of Canada's South Asian community are immigrants. Over seven out of ten (71%) South Asians living in Canada in 1986 were foreign-born. The remaining 29% were born in Canada, the descendants of South Asian immigrants.

As well, most South Asian immigrants came to Canada in the last two decades. Of those living in Canada in 1986, 94% arrived after 1966; in comparison, only about half of all other immigrants arrived during the last two decades. As a result, South Asians made up 10% of all immigrants who arrived in Canada in the 1967-1986 period. In contrast, only 1% of the immigrant population which arrived before 1967 were South Asians.

The majority of South Asian immigrants have taken out Canadian citizenship. By 1986, 78% of all foreign-born South Asians who had been in Canada for more than three years were Canadian citizens.

Geographic concentration

The South Asian population tends to be concentrated in certain areas of the country. In 1986, 88% of all South Asians lived in just three provinces: the majority (51%) were in Ontario, while British Columbia was home to 25%, and 11% lived in Alberta.

As a result, South Asians made up 2.7% of the population in British Columbia, 1.8% in Ontario, and 1.5% in Alberta. In each of the remaining provinces, South

Asians represented less than 1% of the population.

South Asians also tend to live in major urban centres. Close to three-quarters of those in Ontario were in the metropolitan Toronto area, while 66% of British Columbia's South Asian population lived in Vancouver. As a result, South Asians made up 3.9% of the population in Vancouver and 3.8% in Toronto. They also made up 2.4% of people in Calgary and 2.1% in Edmonton.

South Asians were less well-represented in other major urban areas. In fact, their share of the population was either greater than or equal to the national average (1.3%) in only three other metropolitan areas: Kitchener (1.6%), Victoria (1.4%), and Winnipeg (1.3%).

A young population

The South Asian community is somewhat younger than the overall Canadian population. Because most South Asians immigrated to Canada as young adults after 1966, there is as yet no large elderly South Asian population. While the elderly constituted 10% of Canada's total population in 1986, just 3% of South Asians were aged 65 and over.

On the other hand, children make up a relatively large proportion of the South Asian population. In 1986, 30% of South Asians, compared with 22% of all Canadians, were younger than age 15.

A well-educated group

Canada's South Asians generally have higher levels of formal education than the overall population. This is partly attributable to Canadian immigration policy, which favours highly qualified applicants.

In 1986, 21% of South Asians aged 15 and over, compared with 10% of adult Canadians, were university graduates. At the same time, just 13% of South Asian adults, compared with 17% of the total adult population, had less than a Grade 9 education.

There are, however, considerable differences between the educational attainment of South Asian men and women. For example, while 25% of South Asian men were university graduates, the proportion among South Asian women was 17%. Nonetheless, both South Asian men and women were more than twice as likely as comparable Canadians to have a university degree. The corresponding figures for the Canadian population overall were 11% for men and 8% for women.

Much of the difference between the educational attainment of South Asian men and women may be attributable to the different immigrant categories under which they are admitted to the country. Many South Asian men come as independent immigrants, and so are required to meet certain education and employment criteria. On the other hand, South Asian women are more likely to come to Canada as dependants sponsored by their husband or family, and so for them, educational qualifications may not be as important.

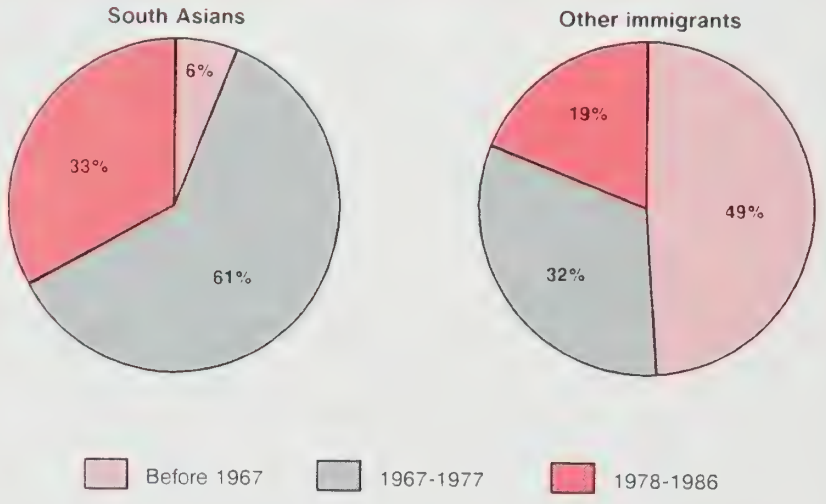
High labour force participation

South Asians are generally more likely than Canadians overall to be in the labour force. In 1986, 78.1% of South Asians aged 25 and over were in the labour force, compared with 66.1% of the total population.

This difference holds for both men and women. The labour force participation rate for South Asian men aged 25 and over in 1986 was 89.8%, about 10 percentage points above the rate (79.4%) for all

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

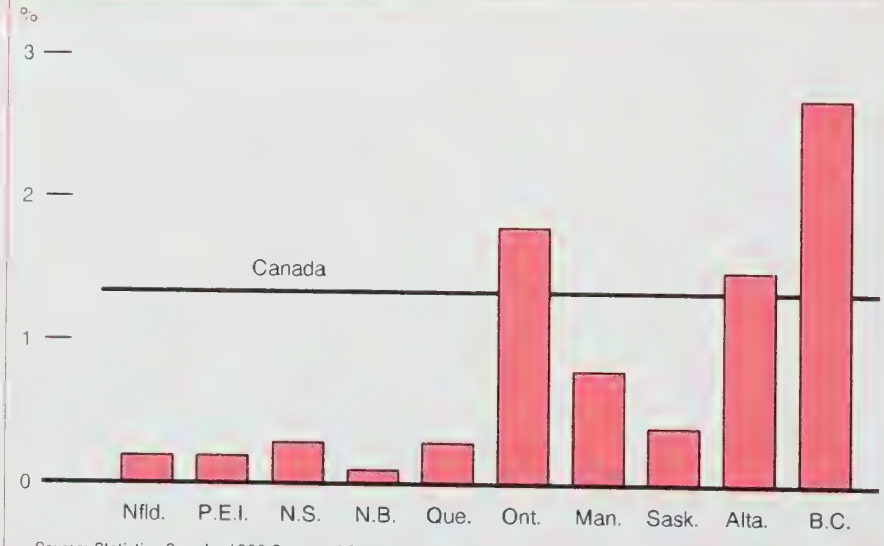
Period of arrival of South Asian and other immigrants, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

South Asians as a percentage of provincial populations, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Canadian men. The corresponding rates for women were 65.6% among South Asians, and 53.6% for the total population.

Occupational differences

The occupational distribution of South Asians also differs from that of the total population.

Among men, South Asians are more likely than other Canadians to work in professional occupations. In 1986, 18% of South Asian men were in professional positions, compared with 13% of all Canadian men.

South Asian men were also more likely than other Canadian men to work in clerical, processing, and product fabricating occupations. In contrast, relatively small proportions of South Asian men worked in primary occupations and construction.

As was the case for all employed women, about one in three South Asian women working outside the home had a clerical job, and substantial proportions were employed in professional and service occupations. The representation of South Asian women in these areas, however, was lower than that for Canadian women overall. The percentages of South Asian women in managerial and sales jobs were also comparatively low. On the other hand, South Asian women were much more likely than other Canadian women to work in product fabricating.

Earned incomes similar

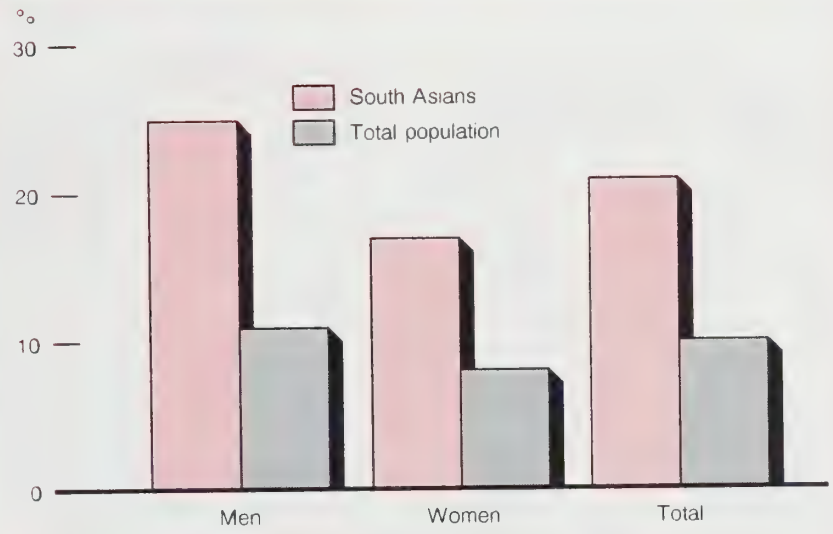
The earned incomes of South Asians are almost the same as those of Canadians overall. South Asian men who worked full time all year in 1985 had an average earned income of $30,100, slightly less than the $30,500 average for all Canadian men. At the same time, South Asian women who worked full time all year earned an average of $19,200, compared with $20,000 for their Canadian counterparts.

Both authors are with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada. **Pamela M. White** *is a senior analyst and* **Atul Nanda** *is a research assistant.*

- More information on South Asians and other major immigrant groups is available in *Profile of the Immigrant Population,* Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-155.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of South Asians and the total population with a university degree, by sex, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Occupational distribution of South Asians and the total population, by sex, 1986

	Men		Women	
	South Asian	Total Canadian	South Asian	Total Canadian
	%			
Professional	17.8	13.1	15.9	20.9
Managerial	12.2	12.6	5.8	7.8
Clerical	9.6	6.8	32.2	33.5
Sales	8.2	8.8	6.9	9.4
Service	9.8	10.2	13.9	16.1
Primary	2.8	7.9	5.1	2.5
Processing	13.4	8.2	4.1	2.4
Product fabricating	12.0	9.9	10.4	4.2
Construction	2.9	10.1	0.1	0.3
Other	11.3	12.4	5.4	3.0
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

PROGRAM CHOICES OF FOREIGN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

by Lynn Barr



The fields of study of foreign students at Canada's universities differ significantly from those of their Canadian counterparts.[1] In particular, foreign students are more likely than their Canadian classmates to enroll in three science-based fields: mathematics and physical sciences, engineering and applied sciences, and agriculture and biological sciences.

Overall, in 1987, more than four out of ten foreign students were enrolled in one of the science-based areas, double the proportion for Canadian students. As well, foreign students' preference for these fields was evident at both the undergraduate and graduate levels, although the difference was more pronounced among graduate students.

In 1987, more than a third (36%) of foreign students in bachelor's and first professional degree programs were in one of the science-based areas. The corresponding figure for Canadian students was 20%.

The relative concentration of foreign students in the science-based areas was even greater at the graduate level. Over half (54%) of all foreign master's and doctoral students were enrolled in these fields, compared with 22% of their Canadian counterparts.

[1] Includes full- and part-time enrolment in degree programs.

Foreign men choose sciences

Foreign students' tendency to enroll in the science-based fields was particularly strong among men. These areas accounted for almost half (47%) of foreign men at the bachelor's level and 60% of those at the graduate level. By contrast, only 29% of Canadian men in bachelor's programs and 31% of those at the graduate level were in these fields.

Foreign women were less likely than their male counterparts to enroll in the science-based fields. Nonetheless, the proportion of female foreign students in these areas exceeded the figure for Canadian women.

About one in five (22%) foreign women in bachelor's degree programs were in the science-based fields, double the percentage for Canadian women (11%). At the graduate level, over a third (35%) of foreign women were in the science-based areas, compared with only 11% of Canadians.

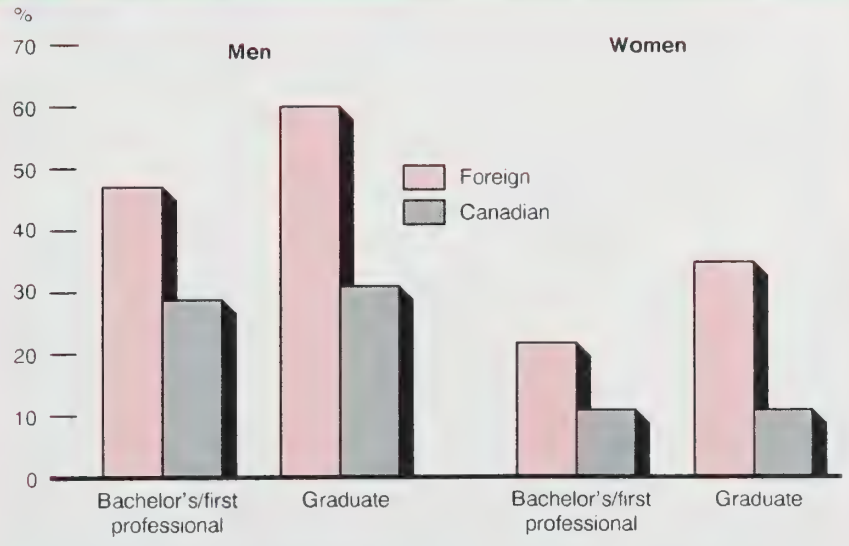
Field of study of foreign and Canadian university students, by degree level, 1987

Field of study	Bachelor's and first professional		Graduate	
	Foreign	Canadian	Foreign	Canadian
	%			
Science-based:				
Mathematics/physical sciences	17	6	20	7
Engineering/applied sciences	14	8	24	9
Agriculture/biological sciences	5	6	10	6
Total science-based	36	20	54	22
Business/commerce	19	12	7	14
Social sciences	18	20	16	21
Humanities	7	9	10	14
Education	2	12	6	19
Health professions	2	6	6	6
Fine/applied arts	2	4	1	2
General arts/science	14	17	--	--
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Total number of students	**14,400**	**497,700**	**8,800**	**66,800**

-- amount too small to be expressed
Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of foreign and Canadian students in science-based fields, by level of study and sex, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

Differences in other fields

There were also differences in the enrolment patterns of foreign and Canadian students in non-science areas.

At the bachelor's level, foreign students were more likely than Canadians to take business and commerce. In 1987, this field accounted for 19% of foreign students, compared with 12% of Canadians. On the other hand, much smaller proportions of foreign than Canadian bachelor's students were enrolled in education, the health professions, and fine and applied arts.

At the graduate level, the proportion of foreign students in most non-science fields was substantially lower than the corresponding figure for Canadians. The exception was the health professions, which accounted for 6% of both groups.

Foreign students at Canadian universities

In 1987, 23,200 foreign students were enrolled in degree programs in Canadian universities. The majority of these foreign students, about 14,000, were at the bachelor's and first professional degree level, where they accounted for 3% of total enrolment. The other 9,000 foreign students were in master's or doctoral degree programs, where they made up 12% of all graduate students.

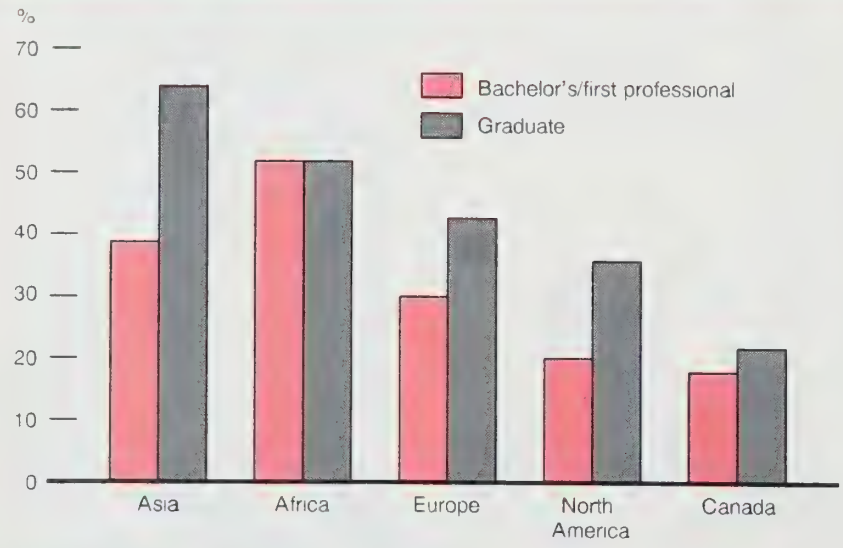
More than half (54%) of foreign students in degree programs were Asian. North America and Africa accounted for 16% and 15%, respectively, while 11% came from Europe, 2% were from South America, and 1% from Oceania.

The students in university degree programs, though, represented less than half of all foreign enrolment in Canada. In 1987, about 4,000 foreign students were enrolled in university diploma or certificate programs, while around 10,000 were in community colleges or trade schools, and close to 17,000 were in elementary or secondary schools.



CANADIAN

Proportion of students in science-based fields, by level of study and origin, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Education, Culture and Tourism Division.

Program choice varies by origin

Program choices vary according to the part of the world from which foreign students come. African and Asian students are the most likely to enroll in one of the science-based fields, whereas the program choices of North Americans[2] and Europeans more closely resemble those of Canadian students. Regardless of their geographic origin, however, the proportion of foreign students in the science-based areas exceeds the figure for Canadians.

African students were the most likely to enroll in the science-based fields at the bachelor's and first professional degree level. More than half (52%) of all students from this part of the world were enrolled in the sciences.

The proportion of Asian bachelor's students in the science-based areas was also high at 39%. As well, a relatively large percentage of Asian students (22%) were in business and commerce.

By comparison, the three science-based fields accounted for 30% of European and 20% of North American bachelor's degree students.

African and Asian students were also the most likely to be in science-based programs at the graduate level. In 1987, 64% of Asian students in master's or doctoral degree programs, along with 52% of those from Africa, were enrolled in one of these areas.

At the same time, 43% of European graduate students and 36% of those from North America were in the science-based fields. Relatively large proportions of North American graduate students were also enrolled in humanities (25%) and social sciences (20%).

[2] Includes students from the United States, Mexico, and Caribbean nations.

Lynn Barr *is a research assistant with* Canadian Social Trends.

TELEVISION VIEWING

by Anthony Young

Canadians spend a considerable amount of time each day watching television. In fact, television viewing accounts for, on average, about one in five of people's waking hours. As a result, much of the information Canadians receive about their society and the world comes from this medium.



Overall, in 1987, Canadians watched an average of 3.4 hours of television a day. This figure has changed very little in the 1980s, although it is up slightly from the mid-1970s. For example, in 1976, daily viewing averaged 3.2 hours.

There is considerable diversity, though, in the amount of time people spend watching television and in the types of programs they enjoy. Generally, women watch more than men, and the elderly watch more than younger people. The amount of time people spend watching television, however, is high for all groups, including children and teenagers.

Women, older people watch more

Women generally watch more television than men. In 1987, women aged 18 and over watched an average of 3.8 hours a day, compared with 3.2 hours for men.

For both men and women, average viewing time increases with age. Women over age 60, for example, watched 5.1 hours a day in 1987, the most for any age group of either sex. Among men, those aged 60 and over also watched the most television, 4.5 hours a day.

Children aged 2-11 and young people aged 12-17 do not watch as much televison as most adults; however, they do spend a substantial part of their days in front of a television set. In 1987, children watched 3.1 hours of television a day, while the figure was 2.7 hours for those aged 12-17.

Drama and news most watched programs

The largest share of Canadians' television viewing time is devoted to dramas. These programs accounted for about one-third of all viewing in 1987. News and public affairs made up another 20%, while comedy and variety/game shows represented 13% and 12%, respectively, and sports, 6%.

Not surprisingly, there are differences in the program preferences of men and women. Men spend about twice as much of their viewing time as women on sports programs, whereas dramas account for a greater share of women's viewing.

There are also differences in the program choices of adults and young people. Most significantly, the proportions of children's and teenager's viewing time devoted to news and public affairs are less than half that of adults. In 1987, news and public affairs programs represented only 7% of the viewing time of children and 10% of that of teenagers; this compared with 22% for adults. On the other hand, greater shares of the viewing time of children and teenagers were devoted to dramas and comedies.

Foreign programs popular

Most of the television programs Canadians watch come from outside the country. In 1987, foreign programming accounted for 64% of all viewing time.

The distribution of viewing time between programs from foreign and domestic sources, though, varies considerably depending on the type of program. Almost all the dramas and comedies Canadians watch are imported, whereas most news and public affairs, along with the majority of sports programs, are Canadian in origin.

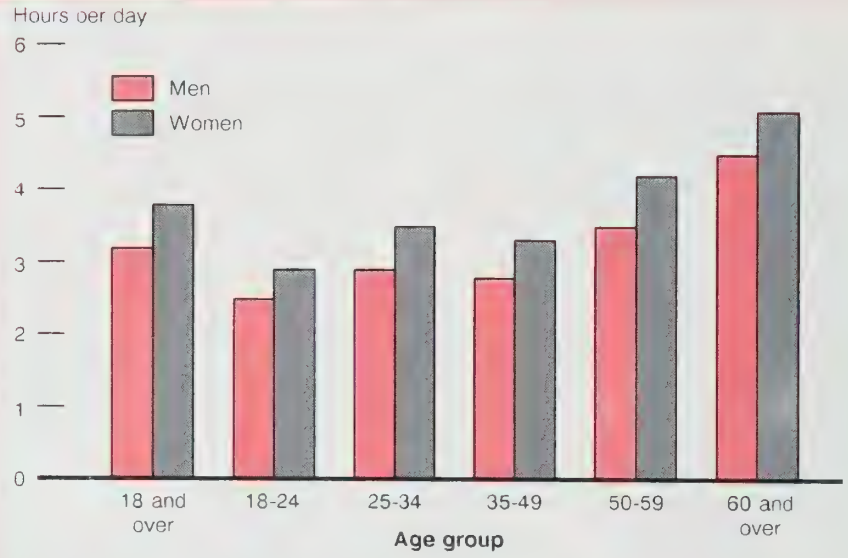
During 1987, 98% of comedies and 87% of dramas watched came from foreign sources, while 87% of news and public affairs and 78% of sports programs were Canadian.

More viewing in the east

People in Quebec and the Atlantic provinces other than Prince Edward Island watch more television than those in

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

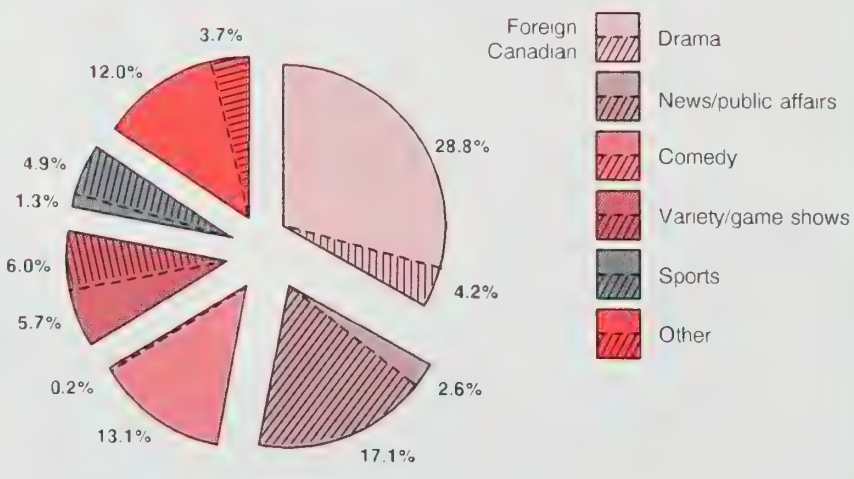
Television viewing, by age and sex, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-208.

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Type of television program watched, by origin, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-208.



The spread of television technology

Almost all Canadians have access to a television set, and growing numbers have cable, pay television, and videocassette recorders (VCRs). Close to 100% of households had a television in 1987, and 94% had colour television. As well, nearly half of all households had at least two television sets.

With the growth of cable and pay television, the amount and variety of programming now offered is substantially greater than it was 10 years ago. In 1987, 68% of Canadian households had cable, up from 47% in 1977. Also in 1987, 13% of households subscribed to pay television, whereas ten years earlier this service was not available.

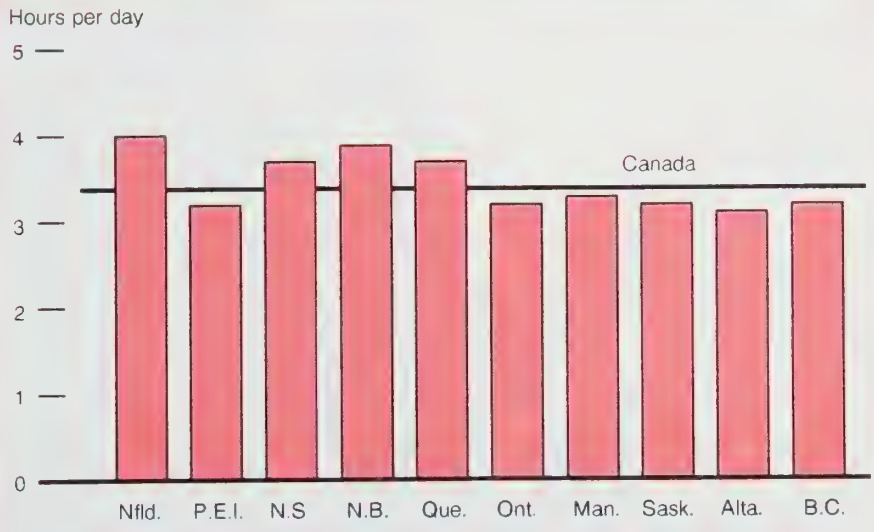
The ownership of videocassette recorders has also increased. In 1987, 45% of households had a VCR, compared with only 6% just four years earlier.

Ontario and the Western provinces. Residents of Quebec, Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick watched an average of around 4 hours a day during 1987, compared with just over 3 hours a day in the other provinces.

Anthony Young *is an analyst with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.*

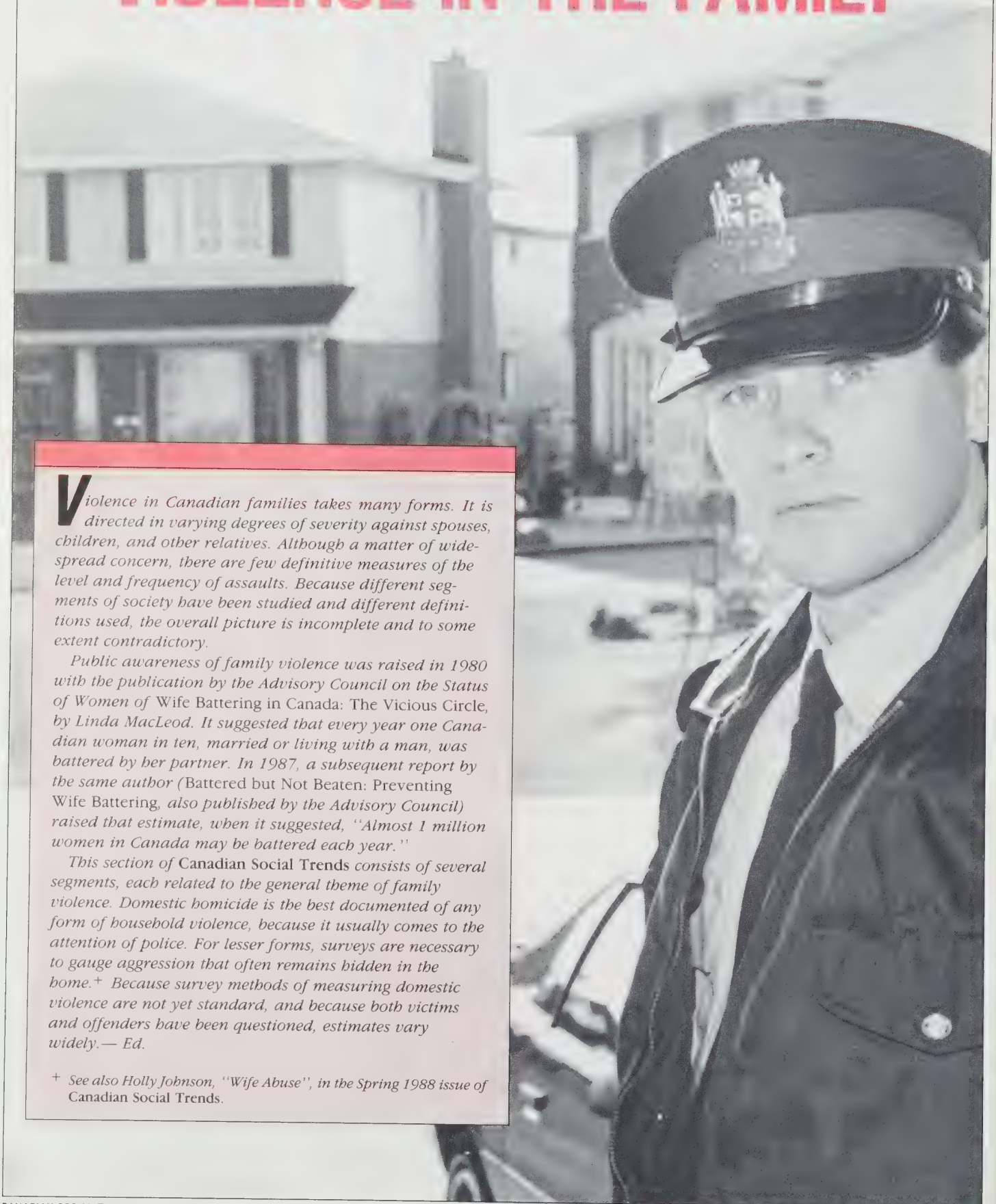
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Television viewing, by province, 1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-208.

VIOLENCE IN THE FAMILY



Violence in Canadian families takes many forms. It is directed in varying degrees of severity against spouses, children, and other relatives. Although a matter of widespread concern, there are few definitive measures of the level and frequency of assaults. Because different segments of society have been studied and different definitions used, the overall picture is incomplete and to some extent contradictory.

Public awareness of family violence was raised in 1980 with the publication by the Advisory Council on the Status of Women of Wife Battering in Canada: The Vicious Circle, *by Linda MacLeod. It suggested that every year one Canadian woman in ten, married or living with a man, was battered by her partner. In 1987, a subsequent report by the same author (*Battered but Not Beaten: Preventing Wife Battering, *also published by the Advisory Council) raised that estimate, when it suggested, "Almost 1 million women in Canada may be battered each year."*

This section of Canadian Social Trends *consists of several segments, each related to the general theme of family violence. Domestic homicide is the best documented of any form of household violence, because it usually comes to the attention of police. For lesser forms, surveys are necessary to gauge aggression that often remains hidden in the home.*[+] *Because survey methods of measuring domestic violence are not yet standard, and because both victims and offenders have been questioned, estimates vary widely.— Ed.*

[+] *See also Holly Johnson, "Wife Abuse", in the Spring 1988 issue of* Canadian Social Trends.

STATISTICS CANADA

FAMILY HOMICIDE

by Holly Johnson and Peter Chisholm

Between 1974 and 1987, homicides involving people related to one another through marriage, common-law union, or kinship accounted for 39% of the total of 7,582 solved homicide offences in Canada. Domestic homicides decreased from 45% of the total solved in 1974 to a low of 33% in 1980, but then rose to 40% between 1985 and 1987.[1] The average annual number of family homicides over the 14-year period was 212.

Men who killed their wives or common-law partners were the single largest group of offenders (37%) in family homicides between 1974 and 1987. Wives and common-law wives were responsible in 12% of cases, fathers in 11%, and mothers in 9%. The remaining offenders were: a child of the victim (9%), a brother or sister (7%), an aunt, uncle, or cousin (7%), an in-law (3%), or another relative (5%).

Native offenders and victims

Native people[2] are greatly over-represented in homicide offences in general, and in family-related homicide in particular.

While Native people make up about 3% of the total population, they accounted for 23% of suspects and 22% of victims in family homicides in the 1974-1987 period. In fact, almost half (49%) of solved homicides involving Native victims were family-related. A quarter of these were committed by husbands, wives, or common-law partners.

Murder-suicide

Persons who commit domestic homicides often take their own lives immediately after the incident. Men who killed their spouse or child were more likely than any other group of suspects to commit suicide immediately following the incident. Over the 1974-1987 period, 31% of men who killed their wives, 19% of those who killed their common-law partners, and 24% of those who killed their children later took their own lives. Much lower percentages of mothers (10%), wives (5%), and other family members (4%) killed themselves after the incident.

The rate of post-homicide suicide among Native suspects was much lower than among non-Natives. Native suspects committed suicide in only 5% of cases in contrast to 20% for non-Native suspects.

Location

Eight of ten family-related homicides occurred in the home of either the victim or the suspect. Remaining offences occurred in other private places (8%), in public places (6%), or in other or unknown locations (7%).

Alcohol and drugs

Between 1974 and 1987, police recorded either alcohol or drug consumption as a contributing factor in about 30% of domestic homicides. But the percentage of incidents involving alcohol alone declined from about 47% of cases in 1975 to 21% in 1987. Evidence of drug consumption as a contributing factor remained at 5% over the 14-year period. Alcohol was likely to be a factor when women killed their partners, especially when the victim was a common-law spouse (69%) as opposed to a legally married partner (45%).

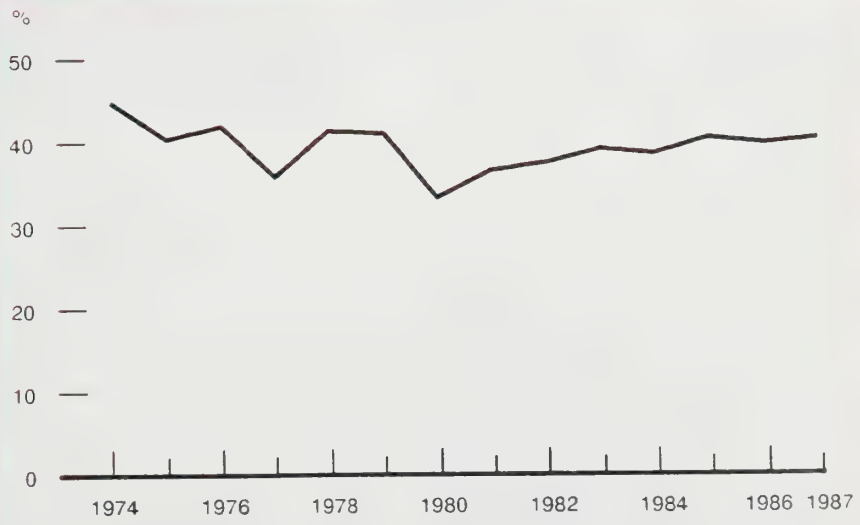
Alcohol was less likely to be involved when men killed their wives or common-law partners—just 21% and 39% of cases, respectively. Alcohol was a factor in 38% of offences involving other family members as victims and in 14% of cases of homicide by mothers.

[1] The homicide rate in Canada has declined over the past 14 years, from a high of 3.1 per 100,000 population in 1975 and 1977 to a low of 2.2 in 1986. The 1987 rate was 2.5.

[2] Includes status and non-status Native Indians, Métis, and Inuit.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

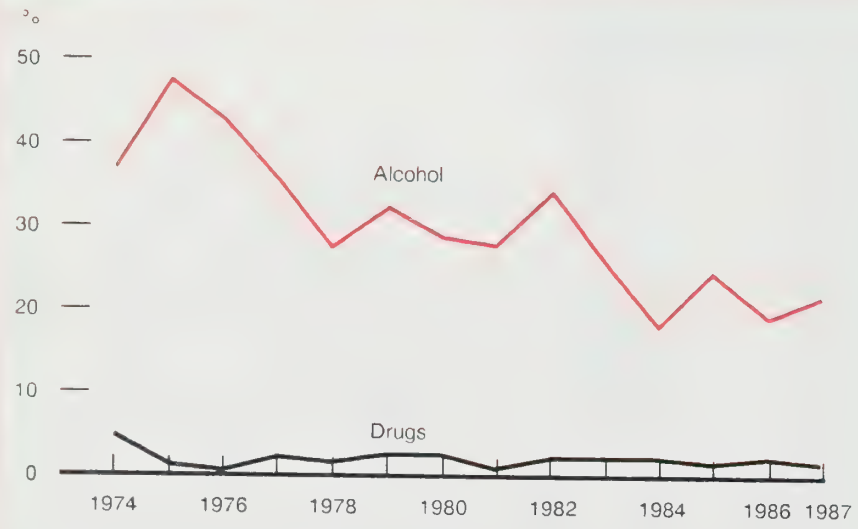
Domestic homicides as a percentage of total solved cases, 1974-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of family-related homicides involving alcohol or drugs,[1] 1974-1987



[1] Includes consumption by either victim(s) or suspect(s).
Source: Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics.

Fully 65% of domestic homicides with Native victims between 1974 and 1987 involved alcohol consumption by either the victim or suspect or both, triple the rate for non-Natives (21%).

Method of killing

Between 1974 and 1987, shooting was the most frequent way that family members were killed, accounting for 37% of victims. Stabbing was the second most common method (23%), followed by beating (21%), and strangulation or suffocation (10%). All other methods, including drowning and arson, made up only 9%.

The use of firearms varied over the 14-year period, reaching a high of over 40% of all domestic homicides in 1974, 1980 and 1986 and a low of fewer than 30% in 1985. Stabbing, on the other hand, increased steadily as a proportion of the total from 13% to 30%.

Shooting was the most common way that men killed their wives. Half of these suspects used a firearm. Men who killed their common-law spouses, on the other hand, chose guns (34%) and beating (30%) in almost equal proportions. Guns were also used in 33% of cases of fathers killing their children.

The predominant method used by women killing their spouse or common-law partner was stabbing (45% and 65%, respectively). Women most often killed their children by strangulation or suffocation (31%) or by other methods not involving firearms (31%). Fully one-fifth (22%) of mothers who killed their children were themselves teenagers at the time of the offence.

Both authors are with the Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Statistics Canada. **Holly Johnson** *is a senior analyst and* **Peter Chisholm** *is a research assistant.*

Assaults on wives: Results from the 1988 General Social Survey

The General Social Survey conducted by Statistics Canada in January and February of 1988 asked questions about criminal incidents that occurred in 1987 in which respondents were victims. All the estimates have high sampling variability and should be used with caution.

On the basis of this survey, the estimated number of wife assaults[1] for Canada in 1987 was 157,000 or about 1,500 per 100,000 women. However, this estimate is conservative in that the number of incidents per respondent was limited to a maximum of 3. The actual number of incidents per respondent ranged as high as 26.

The rate was highest for women aged 25-44 at 2,200 per 100,000, while the rate for those aged 15-24 was 1,900. The rate for those 45 or more years could not be calculated reliably.

About two-thirds (62%) of incidents involved being hit, slapped, kicked, or knocked down. Other attacks were incidents in which the victim was grabbed, held, tripped, jumped on, or pushed, while a small number were rapes, shootings, knifings, or assaults with objects. More than one in five (21%) of the assaulted wives later received attention from a doctor or nurse.

The majority (68%) of reported incidents occurred at night between 6 PM and 8 AM, while the remainder took place during the day or at an unspecified time. Almost three-quarters (73%) of incidents occurred in an urban setting, with the balance taking place in a town, village, or rural area, or in an unstated location.

[1] Assaults or sexual assaults against a female victim by her spouse or ex-spouse.

MALE VIOLENCE IN THE HOME

by Eugen Lupri





Eugen Lupri
is a Professor of Sociology at the University of Calgary.

The family can provide a private setting for the development of love and companionship. But the very privacy that fosters emotional attachments between partners also allows the expression of violent antagonism.

When surveyed under circumstances guaranteeing anonymity, Canadian men aged 18 and over reported that they had committed significant amounts of violence against their partners. In many instances, the violence was not an isolated incident, but had occurred several times during the previous year.

Overall, 12% of men reported that they had pushed, grabbed, or shoved their mates at least once during the previous year, and in two-thirds of these cases, the incidents had occurred more than once. Another 9% reported they had thrown an object at a mate.

Rates of more serious types of violence were lower: 6% reported kicking, biting, or hitting with a fist, 5% reported slapping, and 5% said they had hit with an object or had attempted to do so. Fewer than 3% reported beating their mates, while less than 1% claimed to have either threatened to use or actually used a knife or gun.

Almost one in five (18%) married or cohabiting men had committed at least one of eight listed violent acts.[1] The figure rose to about 30% among divorced or separated respondents. Considering only the five most serious acts, each of which carries a high risk of serious injury, about 10% of married and cohabiting men reported at least one such incident.

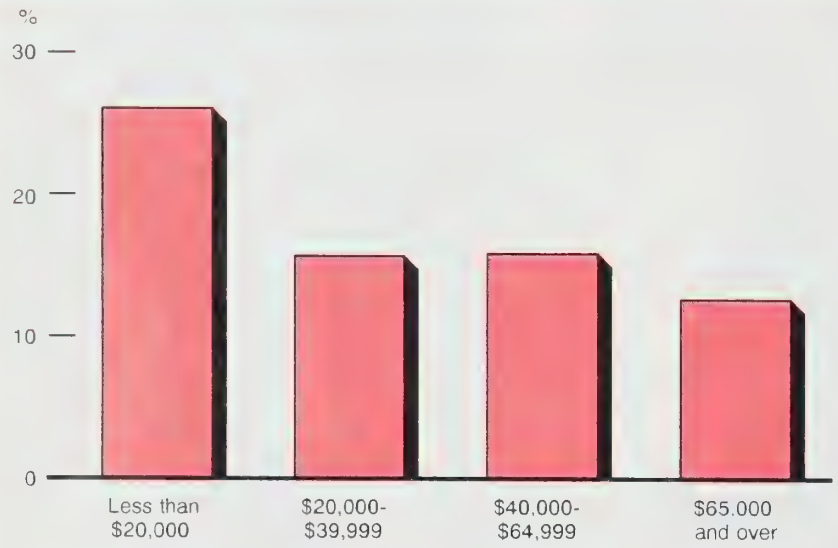
Characteristics of men who report assaulting their mates

While abuse of a female partner was reported by men in all income groups, it was more common among those with low incomes. The rate for men with annual incomes less than $20,000 was 26%, double the rate for men with incomes of $65,000 or over (13%).

More than half the male respondents

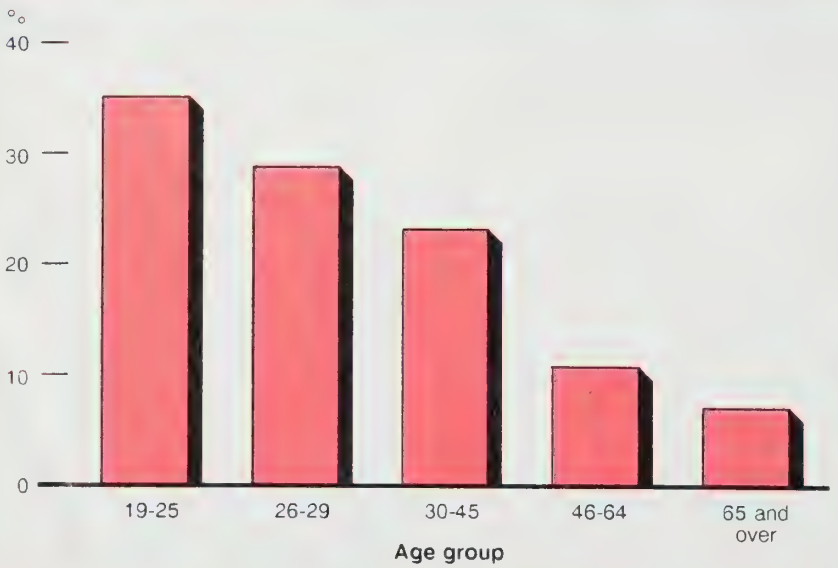
CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of married and cohabiting men reporting violent incidents, by income level, 1986



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of married and cohabiting men reporting violent incidents, by age, 1986



About the survey

These data were collected as part of a national survey of 1,834 men and women aged 18 and over, conducted by Decima Research Ltd. during November and December 1986. The findings presented here are based on the responses of the men.

The information was gathered by self-administered questionnaires, which interviewers left behind after personal interviews together with a return envelope to be completed by ever-married or cohabiting respondents.

Households were selected at random by computer using Statistics Canada enumeration areas as the primary sampling unit. Probability of selection was disproportionate by province, and within each province the sample was stratified by community size. A weighting scheme was used to bring the sample back into the proper proportions vis-à-vis the 1981 Census. In 19 out of every 20 national samples of this size, the results would fall within about plus or minus two percentage points of the results found here.

Eight questions on spousal violence appeared on the questionnaire after a series of less delicate questions on family life. A short written introduction presented the topic in terms of disagreements and conflicts that nearly all couples experience. If respondents were members of an ongoing marital or common-law relationship, the acts of violence referred to occurred in 1986. If respondents were separated, divorced, or widowed at the time of the survey, the questions referred to their last year of marriage.

Levels of violence ranged from throwing objects at a partner through pushing and shoving, slapping, kicking, hitting, beating, to the threatened or actual use of potentially deadly weapons such as guns or knives.

[1] Using the same Conflict Tactics Scales employed here, Michael Smith reported an annual incidence rate of 14.4% among a sample of 604 Toronto women in "The Incidence and Prevalence of Woman Abuse in Toronto" in *Violence and Victims*, Vol. 2, No. 3, 1987.



reporting violent incidents were aged 29 or younger. Although the rate was lower for older men, wife abuse occurs at all ages. In fact, 7% of men aged 65 and older reported such incidents.

Among younger men, those with the least education tended to report more incidents. For example, among those aged 18-44 with an incomplete high school education, 28% reported assaults as opposed to 17% with a graduate or professional degree. Among men 45 years and older, the highest rate found was for men with an incomplete university education (31%).

Geographic differences

Spousal assault rates were highest in the Western provinces and in the Atlantic region. British Columbia had the highest overall violence rate (26%), while the figure was 24% in the Atlantic provinces. Quebec (13%) had the lowest overall provincial rate, while Ontario's rate (17%) was close to the national average of 18%.

Wife abuse occurred more frequently in urban than in rural areas. Rates for men who lived in rural areas or in towns with fewer than 5,000 inhabitants were lowest (12%). Spousal assault rates were over 20% in medium-sized towns and cities (23%), and in metropolitan areas (21%).

Stress and violence

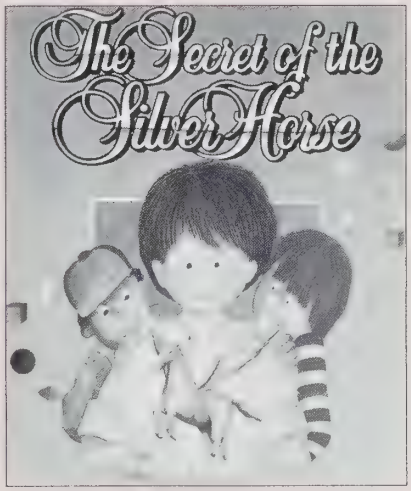
There is a strong relationship between stressful life events and reported male spousal violence. The interview schedule contained a checklist of 12 stressful events that respondents might have experienced in the previous five years:

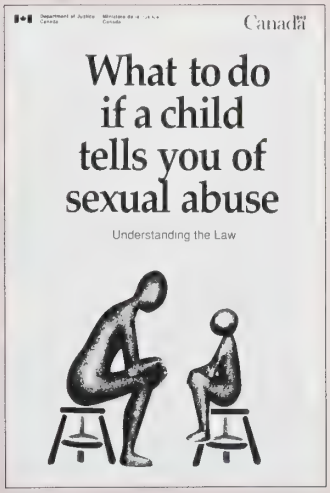
- Unemployment for more than one month
- Personal bankruptcy
- A drop in wage or salary
- Taking an additional job to make ends meet
- Working more overtime than he wishes to make ends meet
- Child support or alimony payments that he did not have before
- A move to less expensive accommodations
- Taking in a boarder to help make ends meet
- One or more demotions
- Loss of income due to a return to school
- Some other important career setback
- Some other significant negative change in economic circumstances

Just 8% of men who reported none or only one of the listed stressful events also reported an instance of violence between themselves and their mates. But the proportion rose to 18% of those reporting two or three sources of stress, to 19% for those reporting 4 or 5 stressful events, and to 33% for those registering 6 or 7 such sources.

Child sexual abuse publications

Four new publications dealing with child sexual abuse laws are available from the Department of Justice Canada.





1. *The Secret of the Silver Horse* – a storybook for children 4-10 years of age about disclosing sexual abuse. (JUS-P-499E)

2. *Tell Someone* – a poster for children focusing on this key message from the children's booklet. (JUS-P-500E)

3. *What To Do If A Child Tells You Of Sexual Abuse: Understanding the Law* – a brochure for adolescents and adults. (JUS-P-501E)

4. *Canada's Laws On Child Sexual Abuse: A Handbook* – providing detailed information on the amendments to the Criminal Code and Canada Evidence Act, for those who work with victims of child sexual abuse. (JUS-P-502E)

If you wish to receive a copy of any of these free publications, please contact:

Communications and Public Affairs
Department of Justice Canada
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0H8

Or telephone: (613) 957-4222

HELP AROUND THE HOUSE: SUPPORT FOR OLDER CANADIANS

by Janet Hagey

The majority of Canadians aged 55 and over[1] can perform most household chores on their own, according to Statistics Canada's 1985 General Social Survey. With advancing age and deteriorating health, however, the need for assistance increases, particularly for tasks involving some physical effort such as heavy housework, grocery shopping, and yardwork. Nonetheless, for all activities, the percentage of older people getting help exceeds the proportion who actually need it, although it is likely that many of those who require considerable support are already in institutions.



Need for help depends on task

Older Canadians are generally more likely to need help with tasks involving some physical exertion. For example, in 1985, 21% of people aged 55 and over required assistance with heavy housework, and 12%, with grocery shopping. In addition, 33% of those who did not live in an apartment needed help with yardwork. On the other hand, fewer than one out of ten people required aid with less strenuous tasks such as meal preparation (7%), money management (4%), light housework (3%), and personal care (2%).

Need rises with age

Not surprisingly, the need for household help increases with age. In 1985, nearly half (46%) of people aged 75 and over required assistance with heavy house-

[1] Excludes people in residential care institutions.

work, and a third (33%), with grocery shopping. In comparison, only 22% of those aged 65-74 needed help with heavy housework, and 12%, with grocery shopping; for those aged 55-64, the figures were 10% and 5%, respectively.

Women aged 75 and over require the most support. In 1985, half of these women needed help with heavy housework, and 39% required assistance with grocery shopping. Among men, the figures were 43% for heavy housework and 23% for grocery shopping.

The proportions of people aged 75 and over needing help with chores involving less exertion were also higher than among those aged 55-74. Nonetheless, even at ages 75 and over, more than eight out of ten people could handle meal preparation, money management, light housework, and personal care without assistance.

Poor health increases need

As might be expected, people in poor health were more likely than others to require aid in performing daily household tasks. For example, of those who rated their health poor, 26% needed help with meals, 20% with light housework, 12% with money management, and 11% with personal care. In comparison, virtually all who rated their health excellent or good could manage these chores.

Grocery shopping was a problem for only 3% of older people in excellent health and 6% in good health; on the other hand, 43% of those in poor health required help buying groceries. In fact, people aged 75 and over who reported good or excellent health had less need for help with grocery shopping than did 55-64-year-olds whose health was poor.

Most older people who rated their health excellent or good could handle even such tasks as heavy housework and yardwork. By contrast, among those in poor health, two-thirds needed assistance with heavy housework, and three-quarters required help with yardwork.

Living arrangements related to need

People living alone or with their spouse are less likely to require help around the house than are those sharing accommodations with someone other than their spouse. However, the last group may have adopted this housing arrangement expressly because they need support.

Close to four out of ten (38%) older people living with others required help with heavy housework, compared with only 16% living alone and 20% living with their spouse. Similarly, 24% of those living with others needed help grocery shopping, while the proportion was 11% for people living alone or with their spouse.

Even tasks that most older people can handle by themselves are troublesome for many of those who live with others. For instance, 11% of people living with others needed help with money management, and 9% required help with light housekeeping. By contrast, fewer than 5% of older people living alone or with their spouse required such support.

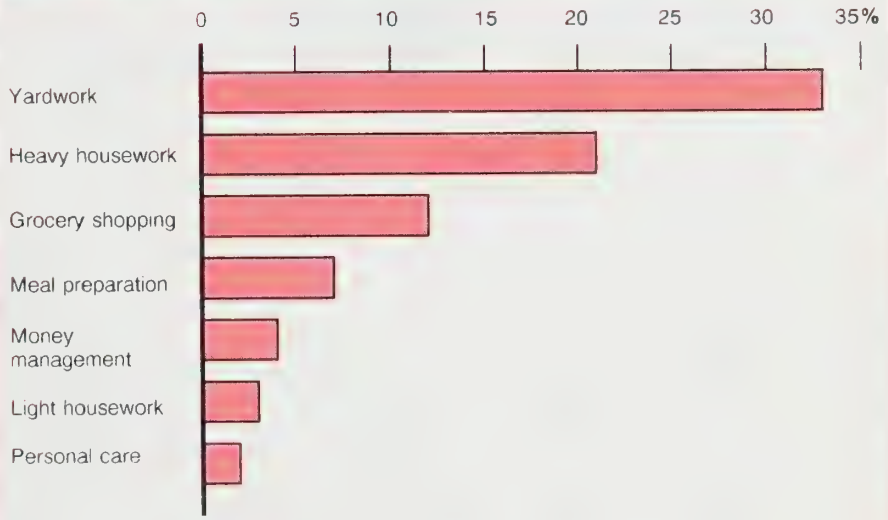
Much support for elderly

Regardless of the task, the proportion of older people who received help exceeded the percentage who claimed that they needed it. Not surprisingly, levels of support were particularly high among people living with their spouse or with others, as these companions undoubtedly shared in household chores. However, even people who lived alone received a considerable amount of help.

While 16% of older people living alone needed assistance with housework, 21%

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

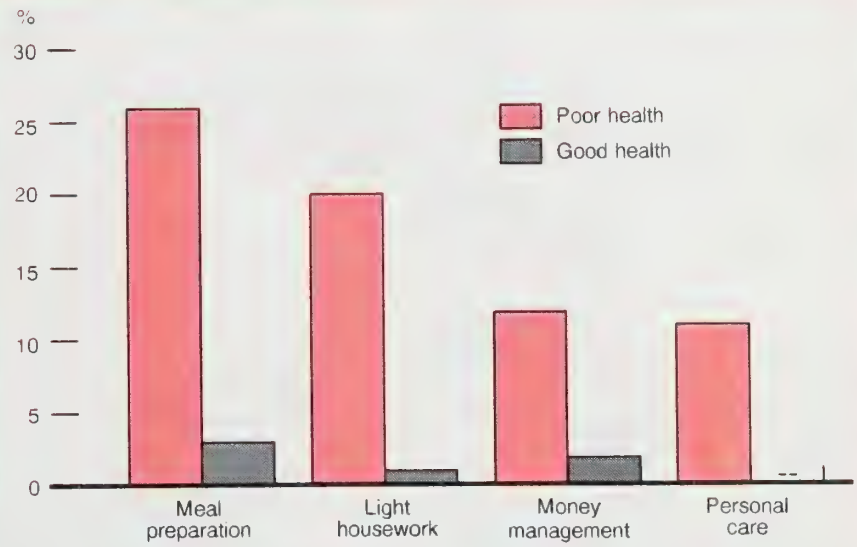
Proportion of people aged 55 and over needing help with selected tasks, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1985.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of people aged 55 and over needing help with selected tasks, by health status, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1985.



received such help. The corresponding figures for grocery shopping were 11% and 20%. The pattern was similar for yardwork: 39% of older people living alone required help, but 57% of them actually received some assistance.

Sources of support

Support for older people comes from a variety of sources including spouses, children and other relatives, friends and neighbours, and formal support systems such as homemaker services and seniors' centres.

For men living alone, friends and neighbours were the main source of assistance with yardwork and grocery shopping. As well, friends and neighbours were their primary source of help with meal preparation, although formal organizations were also important. In addition, formal organizations were the major source of help with housework for men who lived alone.

Formal support was also important to older women who lived alone. Visiting homemakers and similar services were their most common source of help with housework and meal preparation. For yardwork, women living alone were more likely to be aided by friends and neighbours, while help in grocery shopping was most often provided by their children, particularly daughters.

Support for older people living with someone other than their spouse came largely from their children and other relatives. However, in many cases, the relatives providing support were probably the "others" with whom the older people shared their accommodations.

Because older married couples can usually rely on each other, they tend to receive much less assistance from other sources. For instance, a spouse was the sole source of assistance for nine out of ten married people who got help with grocery shopping and meal preparation. Such highly concentrated support, however, makes them vulnerable if that support is lost.

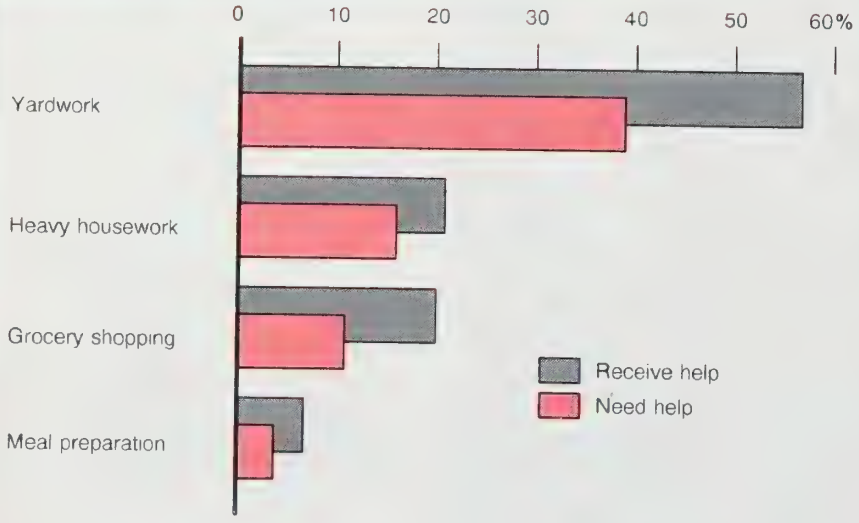
The additional help that older couples do get is likely to be provided by their children. Daughters aid with housework, meal preparation, and groceries; sons, with yardwork.

Janet Hagey *was formerly the Assistant Director of the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada. She is currently Director of Quantitative Analysis and Socio-demographic Research, Indian and Northern Affairs Canada.*

- More information on this topic is available in *Health and Social Support, 1985*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 11-612; and *Family and Friendship Ties among Canada's Seniors*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 89-508, by Leroy O. Stone, with the assistance of Hubert Frenken and Edward Dak Ming Ng.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of people aged 55 and over living alone who need and receive help with selected tasks, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, 1985.

RESIDENTIAL CARE

by Carol Strike



Residential care facilities are an important component of Canada's health care system. Occupants of these facilities receive nursing and counselling services, as opposed to the active medical treatment available in hospitals. While most residential care facilities are homes for the aged, they also include residences for psychiatrically disabled or developmentally delayed people, substance abusers, and emotionally disabled children.

In 1986-87, an estimated daily average of 226,000 people were in residential care facilities.[1] By comparison, an average of around 150,000 people were in hospitals each day.

Most in homes for the aged

Homes for the aged account for about seven out of ten people in residential care. In 1986-87, there were an estimated

[1] Includes facilities with four or more beds, which are funded, licensed, or approved by provincial/territorial departments of health/social services.

158,000 residents per day in homes for the aged, a 24% increase from 1979-80. This rise reflects both the growing number of elderly people and the diminishing tendency for them to live with their adult children.

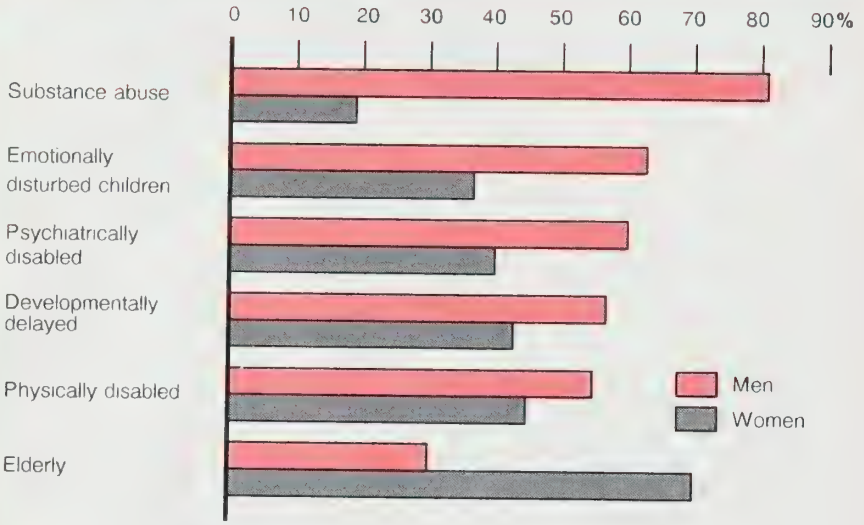
Most people in homes for the aged are women. In 1986-87, women made up 70% of residents in these facilities. As well, many residents are "older elderly" people. Over three-quarters (77%) of people in these facilities in 1986-87 were at least 75 years of age, and 40% were aged 85 and over.

Changes in other institutions

In 1986-87, 9% of the total estimated number of people in residential care were in homes for the psychiatrically disabled; 8% were in facilities for the developmentally delayed; 4% were in homes for emotionally disturbed children; 2% were in substance abuse facilities; and 5% were in other types of institutions.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

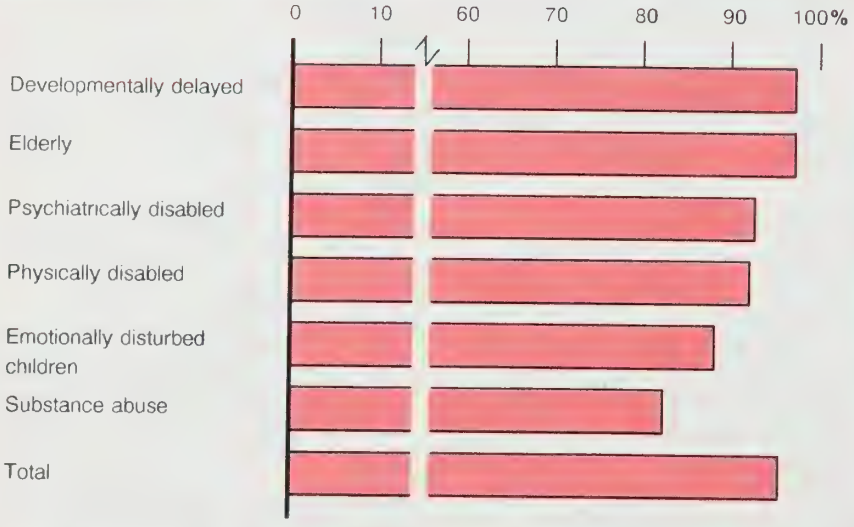
Proportion of men and women in residential care, by type of institution, 1986-87



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Occupancy rate, by type of institution, 1986-87



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

This distribution reflects several shifts since the late 1970s. Between 1979-80 and 1986-87, the number of residents in substance abuse facilities increased 44%, while the number in facilities for the developmentally delayed rose about 15%.

On the other hand, the number of residents in facilities for the physically disabled decreased sharply. An estimated 11,000 people were in these facilities on a daily basis in 1979-80; by 1986-87, there were only 2,700. This decline occurred largely because of the movement of physically disabled people from institutions to either group homes with fewer than four beds or independent home care arrangements.

The estimated daily number of residents in facilities for emotionally disturbed children also declined between 1979-80 and 1986-87.

In contrast to homes for the aged, most people in other residential care facilities are male. In 1986-87, men made up the majority of residents in facilities for substance abusers (81%), the psychiatrically disabled (60%), the developmentally delayed (57%), and the physically handicapped (55%). As well, boys made up 63% of the estimated number of residents in facilities for emotionally disturbed children.

High occupancy rates

The number of people in residential care is related to the number of spaces available. In fact, during the 1980s, these facilities were filled close to capacity, with an overall occupancy rate of more than 95%.

Homes for the aged and facilities for the developmentally delayed had the highest occupancy rates, as residents represented 97% of the number of approved beds in both types of institutions in 1986-87.

Less private, more public ownership

Most residential care institutions are operated by non-profit organizations such as charities, governments, and religious organizations. In 1986, non-profit organizations ran 64% of residential care facilities, while the remaining 36% were operated for profit.

The proportion of residential care facilities operated by non-profit organizations increased during the 1980s. For example, in 1980, ownership of these institutions was divided roughly equally between profit and non-profit enterprises.

Occupancy rates in the other institutions ranged from 83% in facilities for substance abusers to 93% in facilities for the psychiatrically disabled.

Residential care expenditures

Every day in 1986-87, an estimated $15 million was spent on residential care. In fact, that year, residential care facilities accounted for an estimated 12.5% of all health care expenditures in Canada. Overall, the total estimated annual expenditure on residential care in 1986-87 was $5.5 billion, up from $4.2 billion (in 1986 dollars) in 1979-80.

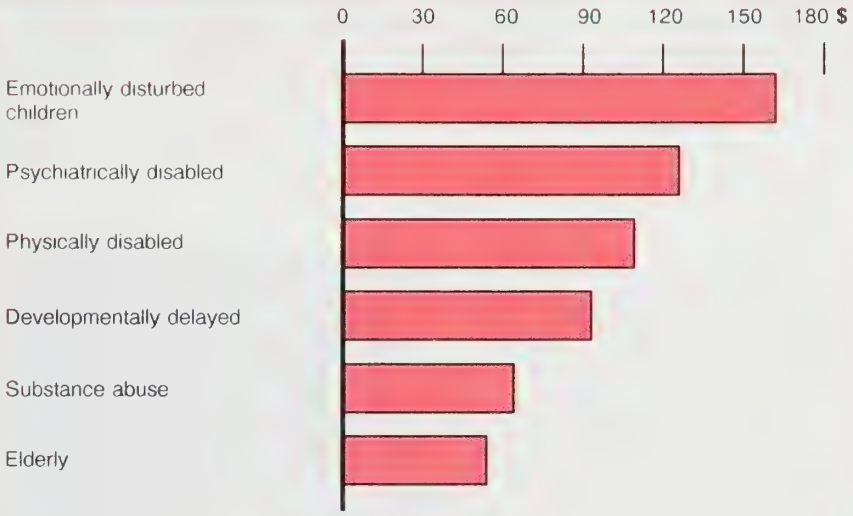
More than half (56%) of all estimated residential care expenditures in 1986-87 went to facilities for the aged. A further 18% was spent on facilities for the psychiatrically disabled, while 11% and 9%, respectively, went to facilities for developmentally delayed people and emotionally disturbed children. The remaining 7% was divided among other facilities.

The amount spent per patient-day varies considerably by type of institution. Facilities for emotionally disturbed children reported the highest patient-day expenditure at $162. On the other hand, spending per aged patient was relatively low, amounting to just $54 a day.

Carol Strike *is a staff writer with* Canadian Social Trends.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Daily cost per resident, by type of institution, 1986-87



Source: Statistics Canada, Health Division.

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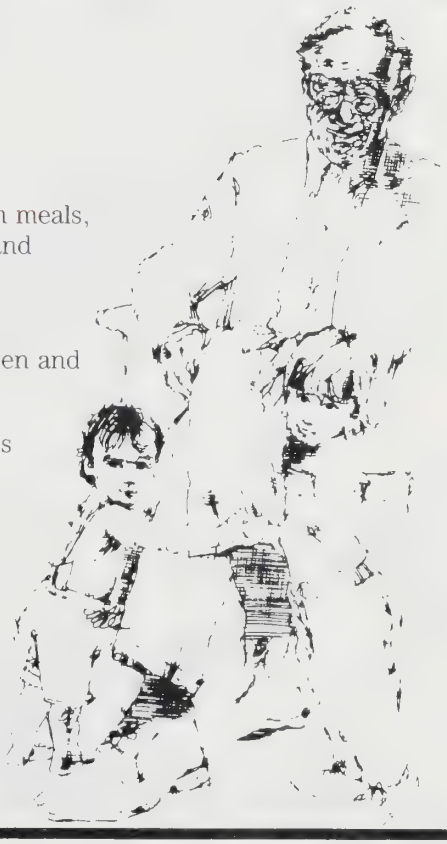
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THE DECLINE IN CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASE MORTALITY

by Jo-Anne B. Parliament



Cardiovascular disease is the leading cause of death in Canada. In 1987, 77,300 deaths, 43% of all deaths, were the result of this disease.

Cardiovascular disease is the principal killer of both men and women, accounting for 45% of all deaths of women and 41% of those of men in 1987. In comparison, cancer, the second-ranking cause of death, accounted for 26% of all deaths for both sexes.

Mortality rate down

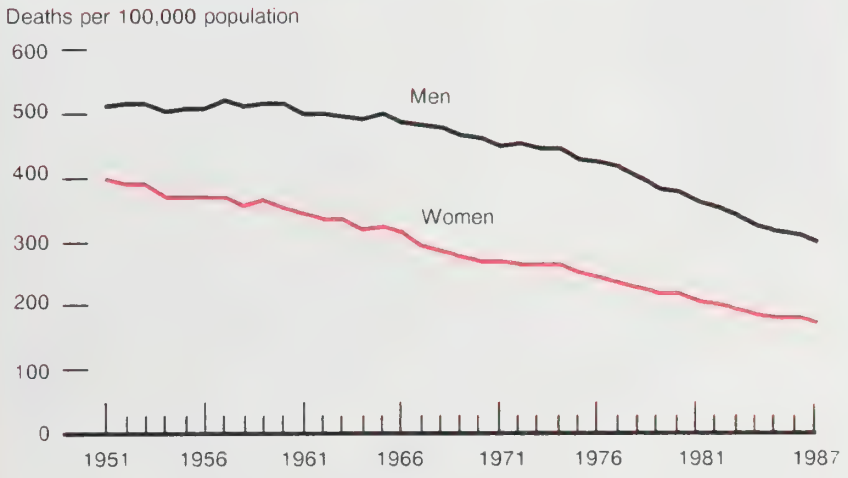
The mortality rate for cardiovascular disease has fallen dramatically in recent decades. Between 1951 and 1987, the age-standardized mortality rate for this disease fell 42% among men, from 512 to 295 deaths per 100,000 men.

The decline in cardiovascular disease mortality was even sharper among women. The number of female deaths due to this disease declined 58% in the 1951-1987 period, falling from 396 to 168 deaths per 100,000 women. As a result, women's age-standardized mortality rate from cardiovascular disease remained well below that of men.

While it is generally agreed that the downturn in cardiovascular disease mortality is a genuine change and not a statistical artifact, there is no consensus on the reasons behind this decline. In addition to the spontaneous decline of this disease, the most likely explanations are the reduction in risk factors such as cigarette smoking, high blood pressure, high cholesterol, and obesity, or some combination of these, as well as improved treatment.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

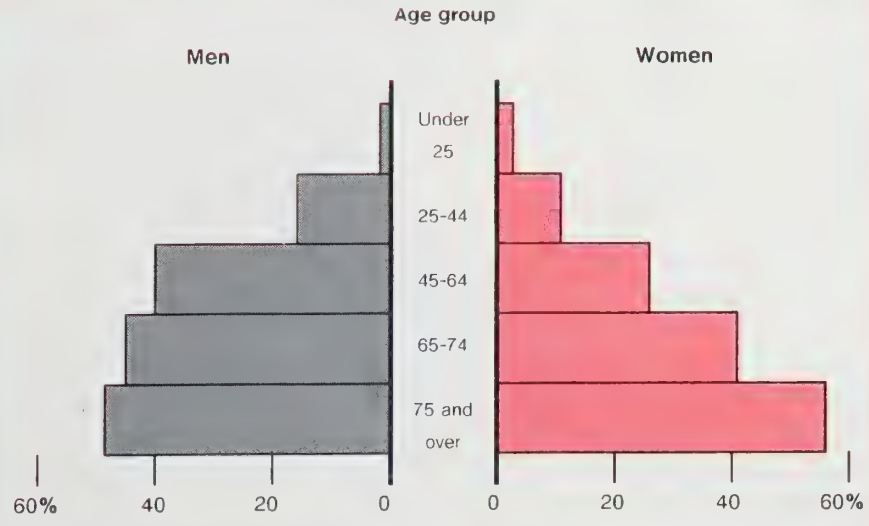
Cardiovascular disease mortality rate, by sex, 1951-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-544.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of deaths in selected age groups due to cardiovascular disease, by sex, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-203.

A greater share of older deaths

Most cardiovascular disease deaths are accounted for by older people. In 1986, for example, 60% of all people who died as a result of this disease were aged 75 and over. That year, 56% of all deaths of women aged 75 and over and 49% of those of men in this age range were attributed to cardiovascular disease.

Cardiovascular disease also caused a large proportion of deaths of both men (45%) and women (41%) aged 65-74 and men aged 45-64 (40%). On the other hand, just 26% of all deaths of women aged 45-64 were attributed to this disease.

Cardiovascular disease was not a major cause of death for people younger than age 45. In 1986, this disease accounted for only 16% of deaths of men aged 25-44 and 11% of those of women in this age group. For people under age 25, just 3% of deaths of women and only 2% of those of men were due to cardiovascular disease.

Cardiovascular disease includes a number of diseases of the circulatory system. The most common form is ischemic or coronary heart disease, which accounted for about 60% of all cardiovascular disease deaths in 1987. Another 18% of cardiovascular deaths resulted from strokes or cerebrovascular disease; 7% were due to arterial disease; and 2% were the result of hypertension. Other diseases, including rheumatic heart disease, were responsible for the remaining 12% of cardiovascular deaths.

Jo-Anne B. Parliament *is an Associate Editor with* Canadian Social Trends.

- More information on this topic is available in *Health Reports*, Vol. 1, No. 1, 1989, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-003.

MATERNITY LEAVE

by Joanne Moloney



During the last several decades, there has been remarkable growth in the labour force participation of women. In fact, since the late 1950s, the proportion of women in the labour force has doubled. As a result, there has been growing interest in a number of issues related to the working conditions of women. Among these is the question of maternity leave and benefits.

Despite a continuing decline in the overall fertility rate in Canada during the 1980s, the incidence of maternity absences from work has risen. In 1987, there were 4.0 pregnancy-related absences[1] for every 100 women aged 15-49 who were paid workers at some time during the year; this was up from 3.1 in 1980, but down slightly from 4.2 in 1985.

The proportion of maternity absences that are compensated also increased during the 1980s. In 1987, 92% of all

[1] Includes absences from work of two or more consecutive weeks.



ended maternity leaves[2] were compensated, compared with 77% in 1980.

About two-thirds of the rise in the share of compensated maternity absences was accounted for by absences in which Unemployment Insurance benefits were the only compensation received. In 1987, these benefits were the only compensation received in 72% of cases, up from 62% in 1980.

The prevalence of other types of financial compensation, however, also increased. In 1987, 20% of women received other benefits such as full or partial pay from their employers or group insurance; this was up from 14% in 1980.

Because of the link between hours of work and the legal right to Unemployment Insurance benefits, there are marked differences in the proportions of full- and part-time workers receiving compensation for maternity leave. In 1984, 95% of women who were employed full time for at least 12 months before they stopped working and 90% of full-time part-year workers were compensated. By contrast, compensation rates were only 83% for those who worked part-time year-round and less than 60% for part-timers who had worked less than a full year prior to their absence.

Absence duration varies

The length of maternity absences varies considerably, although a substantial proportion last 17 weeks. Throughout the 1980s, for example, 14% of all ended absences were of this duration. Seventeen weeks was the single most common duration largely because statutory provisions entitle most women to 17 or 18 weeks, while the Unemployment Insurance program offers benefits for a maximum of 15 weeks following an initial two-week waiting period.

A high proportion of maternity absences, though, were relatively brief. For example, 11% of absences in the 1980-1987 period lasted just 2-6 weeks. However, some of these absences may have been sick leave taken for either illness or medical complications early in the pregnancy.

At the same time, close to 3 in 10 absences lasted more than 20 weeks: 15% were from 21-26 weeks and 14% were longer than 26 weeks.

The length of a maternity absence may be related to the financial compensation involved. From 1980 to 1987, compensated absences lasted an average of almost 19 weeks, compared with fewer than 15 weeks for non-compensated leaves.

Absences highest at ages 25-29

Maternity leave is most common among women aged 25-29. During the 1980s, there were an average of 9.1 pregnancy-related absences for every 100 working women in this age group, compared with 6.1 for women aged 30-34 and 4.3 for those aged 20-24. The incidence of maternity absences falls off sharply for women under age 20 and over age 34.

[2] Ended absences are those that had ended by the time of the survey in February following the reference year. These represented 71% of maternity absences from 1980 to 1987.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Maternity absence rate, 1980-1987



Source: Statistics Canada, Absence from Work Survey.



It is not surprising that the incidence of maternity absence is highest among 25-29-year-olds, since their fertility rate is also the highest. However, the fact that maternity absences are more frequent among women in their early thirties than among those in their early twenties is somewhat surprising, as the fertility rate is higher among the younger group. The lower maternity absence rate among women aged 20-24 may occur because working women in this age range are more likely to postpone childbearing to establish a career, especially if they have completed a postsecondary education. The maternity absence rate among postsecondary graduates, for example, was just 2.5 for 20-24-year-olds, compared with 9.4 for women aged 30-34.

Absence rate highest in Quebec

The incidence of pregnancy-related absences varies considerably by province. During the 1980s, the number of these absences per 100 women aged 15-49 ranged from 3.0 in Newfoundland to 4.3 in Quebec.

The high incidence of pregnancy-related absences in Quebec is surprising, given that Quebec has the lowest fertility rate of any province. However, Quebec also has superior maternity leave provisions and benefits. As well as providing 18 weeks of regular maternity leave, Quebec legislation allows for other types of pregnancy-related leave. These include special maternity leave when there is a risk of miscarriage or a threat to the health of the mother and leave for legal or spontaneous abortion and stillbirths.

Quebec has also been a leader with respect to paid maternity leave. In the 1980-1987 period, 92% of all ended maternity absences in Quebec were compensated. Among the other provinces, the percentage of compensated maternity absences ranged from around 80% in Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia to 88% in New Brunswick, Ontario, and Manitoba.

The high compensation rate in Quebec is due mainly to the prevalence of maternity leave compensation other than Unemployment Insurance benefits. Other types of compensation were received in 35% of all ended maternity leaves in Quebec from 1980 to 1987, compared with just 19% in Canada as a whole.

Quebec also has the longest maternity absences. In the 1980s, absences in Quebec averaged over 20 weeks, while in the other provinces, they ranged from just over 15 weeks in Newfoundland to 19 weeks in Alberta.

Maternity leave and benefit entitlements

Working women in all provinces are entitled to a period of unpaid maternity leave. Provincial statutes and the Canada Labour Code allow 17 or 18 weeks of maternity leave, depending on the jurisdiction. Collective agreements negotiated by unions, or employers themselves, may offer maternity leave and benefits that exceed those in the applicable legislation.

For public servants, employment standards are set in public service acts. Many of these do not mention maternity leave; it is the collective agreements of public service unions that provide this leave. Entitlements for public servants range from four months in Prince Edward Island to 12 months in Saskatchewan.

In most jurisdictions, an employee must complete a minimum period of employment to be eligible for maternity leave. This qualifying period varies from 20 weeks in Quebec to one year plus 11 weeks in Ontario.

A large percentage of maternity absences are compensated, with Unemployment Insurance benefits the most widely available form of financial compensation. These benefits consist of 15 weeks of payments at 60% of the employee's regular wage, up to a maximum, which is increased each year. In 1989, the maximum weekly benefit was $363. As a rule, a woman must have worked 20 weeks within the last year to qualify for Unemployment Insurance maternity benefits.

A study for the Task Force on Child Care ranked Canada poorly compared with 22 industrialized countries in eastern and western Europe. Fifteen of these countries paid maternity benefits of 90-100% of the employee's usual earnings, up to a weekly maximum, for periods ranging from six weeks to nine months. The same study, however, showed that Canada's maternity leave provisions compared favourably with those in the United States.

Maternity leave by industry

The characteristics of maternity leave also vary by industry. During the 1980s, maternity absences were most common in public and regulated service industries.[3] There were 4.8 such absences for every 100 female paid workers aged 15-49 in these industries, compared with 4.0 absences in manufacturing, transportation, and storage industries, 3.2 in other service industries, and 2.1 in primary and construction industries.

Workers in public and regulated services also tend to take the longest maternity absences. From 1980 to 1987, ended absences for this group averaged 19.3 weeks, compared with 17.6 weeks in the other services, 17.0 weeks in manufacturing, transportation, and storage industries, and just 13.7 weeks in the primary and construction group.

There is less difference in the proportion of maternity absences compensated in the various industries, although the primary and construction sector does lag somewhat behind. In the 1980s, 89% of absences in the public and regulated services, 87% in manufacturing, transporta-

[3] Includes education, health, social, and government services, as well as the communication and utilities industries.

Maternity absence characteristics, by province, 1980-1987 average

	Maternity absences per 100 working women aged 15-49	Average duration of ended maternity absences[1]	Compensated ended maternity absences[1]
		Weeks	%
Newfoundland	3.0	15.4	86.2
Prince Edward Island	3.1	16.2	83.9
Nova Scotia	3.4	16.0	83.7
New Brunswick	3.3	16.8	88.0
Quebec	4.3	20.1	91.9
Ontario	3.8	17.3	88.4
Manitoba	3.2	17.0	87.8
Saskatchewan	4.2	17.5	80.6
Alberta	3.7	19.1	79.6
British Columbia	3.3	17.2	80.1
TOTAL	**3.8**	**18.2**	**87.3**

[1] Ended absences are those that had ended by the time of the survey in February following the reference year.
Source: Statistics Canada, Absence from Work Survey.

Maternity absence characteristics, by industry, 1980-1987 average

	Maternity absences per 100 working women aged 15-49	Average duration of ended maternity absences[1]	Compensated ended maternity absences[1]	Workers covered by collective agreement
		Weeks	%	%
Public/regulated services	4.8	19.3	88.9	60.2
Manufacturing/transportation/ storage	4.0	17.0	86.9	29.2
Primary/construction	2.1	13.7	77.3	5.2
Other services	3.2	17.6	86.3	9.6

[1] Ended absences are those that had ended by the time of the survey in February following the reference year.
Sources: Statistics Canada, Absence from Work Survey and Labour Market Activity Survey.

tion, and storage, and 86% in the other services were compensated. In comparison, the figure was 77% in the primary and construction industries.

Some of the variation in maternity leave characteristics in different industries may be attributable to differences in unionization rates. For example, 60% of women in paid jobs in public and regulated services were covered by a collective agreement, compared with 29% of those in manufacturing, transportation, and storage industries, 10% in other services, and just 5% in primary and construction industries.

Union membership, however, does not guarantee better maternity leave provisions and benefits than those stipulated by legislation. For example, in the early 1980s, just 49% of major collective agreements in Canada contained sections pertaining to maternity leave; and only 71% exceeded legislated limits. As recently as 1988, paid maternity leave was provided in just 26% of major collective agreements.

Other factors may also contribute to the differences in maternity absences in various industries, particularly those between the primary and construction industries and the other industry groups. The high rate of self-employment and the small average firm size characteristic of the primary and construction industries suggest that family businesses may be more common in this sector. And until July 1987, women employed by their spouse were not eligible for Unemployment Insurance maternity benefits.

Non-compensated and shorter absences in the primary and construction sector may also be related to the seasonal nature of the work in these industries. This could limit eligibility for maternity benefits, especially if regular benefits are received shortly before the maternity absence.

Finally, the generally lower profile of maternity absences in the primary and construction industries may also reflect the small number of women in these industries.

Joanne Moloney *is a senior analyst with the Labour and Household Surveys Analysis Division, Statistics Canada.*

- More information on this topic is available in the article "On Maternity Leave" by the same author in the first issue of *Perspectives on Labour and Income*, Statistics Canada, Catalogue 75-001.

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SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,911.8
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1
Immigration[1]	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	150,898
Emigration[1]	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	41,003
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	*	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	693	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	11,001	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244
- goods sector (000s)	3,711	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693
- services sector (000s)	7,290	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550
Total unemployment (000s)	898	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031
Unemployment rate	7.5	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8
Part-time employment (%)	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4
Women's participation rate	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1987 $	39,228	37,445	36,450	36,981	37,737	38,472	38,851	*
% of families with low income	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	12.6	11.8	11.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	64.9	65.8	65.9	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,973.9	5,025.5[p]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.7[p]
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	*
Government expenditure on education (1988 $000,000)	29,996.8	30,132.0	30,674.2	30,194.6	32,400.6	31,499.7	32,106.3	31,773.7
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	19.7	*
- women	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	5.4	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	36.7	-	34.0	-	33.1	30.8	*	*
- women	28.9	-	28.3	-	27.8	25.8	*	*
Government expenditure on health (1988 $000,000)	27,054.2	28,152.2	29,661.2	29,647.2	31,866.4	32,625.4	33,889.1	35,217.6
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	666	685	692	714	749	808	856	896[p]
- property	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,625[p]
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2[p]
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1988 $000,000)	126,645.4	135,492.6	141,944.0	143,616.2	150,843.4	152,381.7	155,112.3	156,793.8
- as a % of total expenditures	57.0	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.9	59.3	58.9	59.2
- as a % of GDP	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.8	27.7	27.0	26.2
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.0
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	+3.7	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.6	+3.2	+4.0	+4.4
Annual inflation rate (%)	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1
Urban housing starts	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635

- Not available; * Not yet available; [p] Preliminary estimates; [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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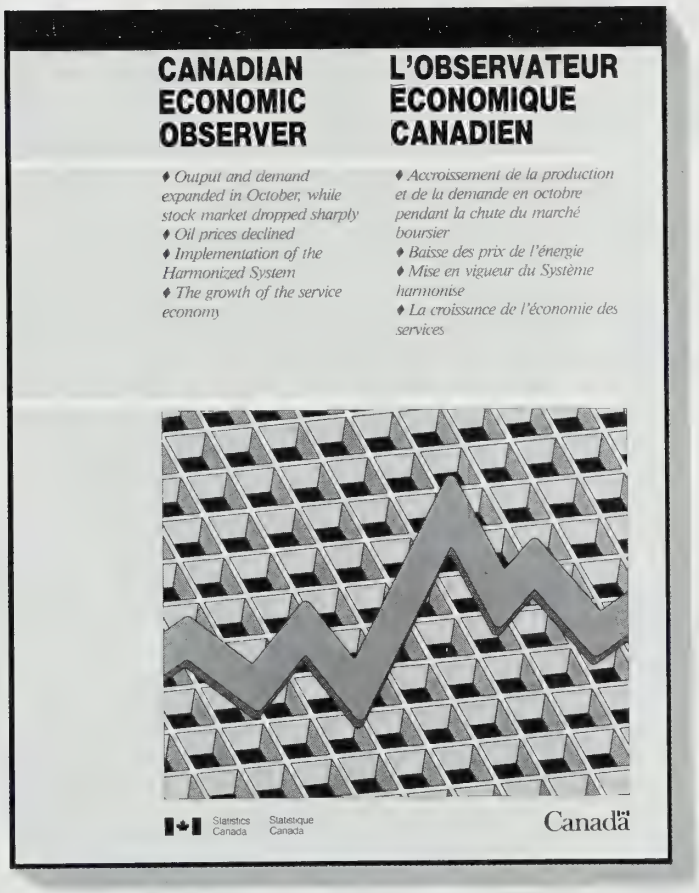
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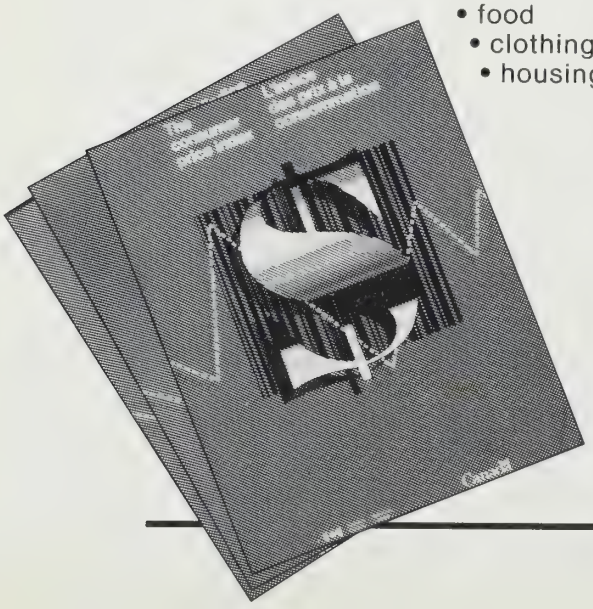
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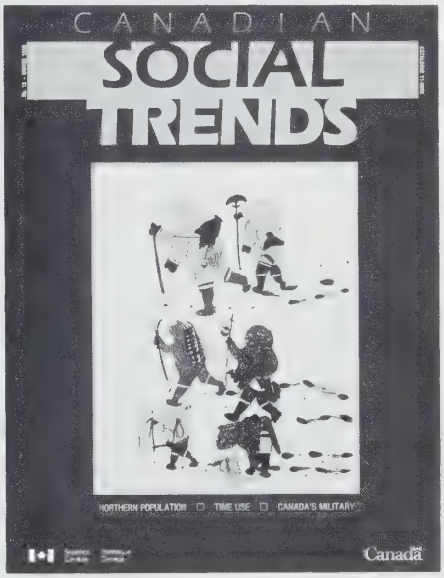
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About the artist:

Born on the Island of Tugjak, N.W.T., around 1900, ***Pitseolak*** later moved with her family to Baffin Island where she spent most of her life. After the death of her husband, she survived by sewing and decorating clothing with embroidery designs. She began printmaking in the 1950s, and was encouraged to produce colourful drawings about the "old ways" of the Inuit. In 1971, *Pitseolak: Pictures out of my life* was published in English and Eskimo. Her work has been acquired by various collections, including the National Gallery of Canada. Pilseolak died in 1983.

In Memory Of:

It is with deep regret that the editorial staff of **Canadian Social Trends** mark the passing of Dhruva Nagnur. Since the inception of this publication, Dhruva contributed several articles and assisted with the provision of data and wise counsel on many more. His helpfulness and unfailing good humour will be missed.

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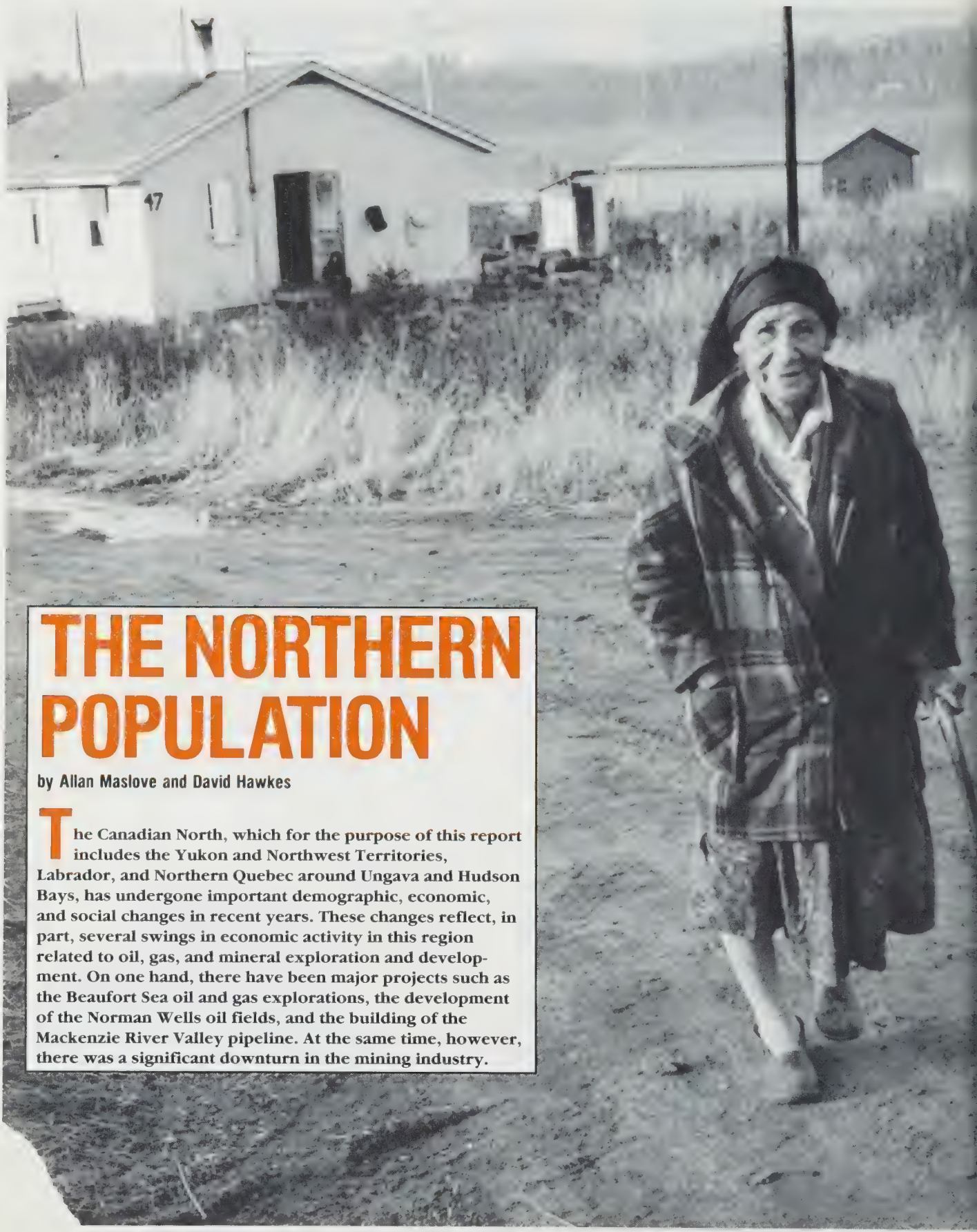
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IS



THE NORTHERN POPULATION

by Allan Maslove and David Hawkes

The Canadian North, which for the purpose of this report includes the Yukon and Northwest Territories, Labrador, and Northern Quebec around Ungava and Hudson Bays, has undergone important demographic, economic, and social changes in recent years. These changes reflect, in part, several swings in economic activity in this region related to oil, gas, and mineral exploration and development. On one hand, there have been major projects such as the Beaufort Sea oil and gas explorations, the development of the Norman Wells oil fields, and the building of the Mackenzie River Valley pipeline. At the same time, however, there was a significant downturn in the mining industry.



One of the major issues in the North is the status of the Aboriginal people. Northern Aboriginal people have been strengthening their political and economic roles in areas such as land claims and self-government negotiations. As well, they have renewed efforts to preserve their traditional cultures. Yet the disparities between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in the North persist, and on some measures, actually appear to be growing.

Little overall population growth in the 1980s

There was little growth in the Northern population during the first half of the 1980s. In 1986, just over 141,000 people lived in the Canadian North, up only slightly (0.1%) from 1981. In the same period, the population of Canada grew by almost 4%.

The Northern population represents only a small portion of the total Canadian population. In 1986, just 0.6% of all Canadians lived in this region, about the same proportion as in 1981.

The stability in the size of the population in the Canadian North contrasts sharply with trends in neighbouring Alaska, which experienced considerable growth in the first half of the 1980s. Between 1980 and 1985, for example, the population of Alaska rose 34%, from 402,000 to 540,000.

While there was little growth in the total number of people living in the North, there were several shifts in the distribution of the Northern population. For example, the population of the Northwest Territories grew over 14% between 1981 and 1986, whereas the populations of Labrador and Northern Quebec shrank 8% and 10%, respectively. At the same time, there was little change in the number of people living in the Yukon Territory.

Aboriginal share of population growing

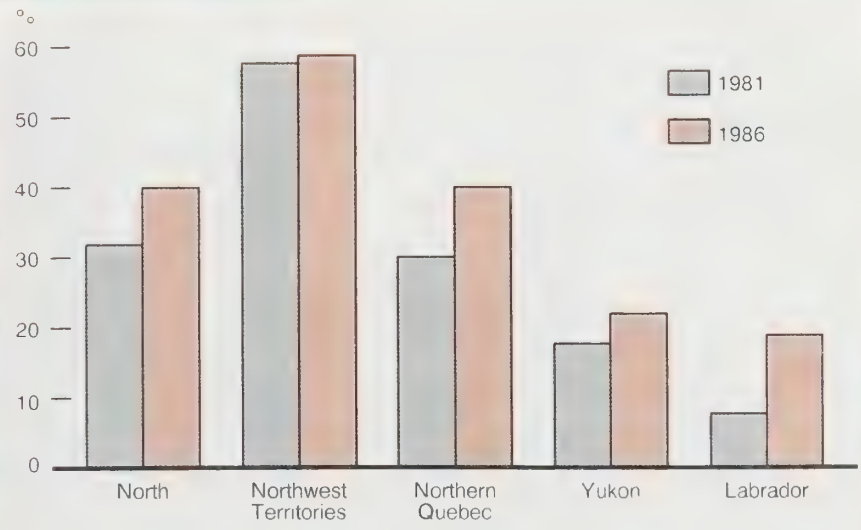
The distribution of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in the North has also changed in recent years. Between 1981 and 1986, the number of Northerners with Aboriginal roots, that is, they identified themselves as North American Indian, Inuit, or Métis, rose 25%. In contrast, the number of non-Aboriginal people declined 12%. As a result, Aboriginal people made up 40% of the total Northern population in 1986, a rise from 32% in 1981.

In 1986, 56,000 Aboriginal people were living in the North. They represented about 8% of all Canadians with native ancestry.

Inuit make up the largest Aboriginal group in the North. Of Aboriginal people reporting a single ethnic background in 1986, 52% were Inuit, 43% were North American Indian, and 5% were Métis.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Aboriginal people as a proportion of the Northern population, by region, 1981 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, Census of Canada.

The share of the population accounted for by people with Aboriginal ancestry varies in the different regions of the North. Those with Aboriginal roots made up 59% of residents of the Northwest Territories, the only province or territory in which Aboriginal people make up the majority of the population. In the other regions of the North, the share of the population accounted for by Aboriginal people ranged from 19% in Labrador to close to 40% in Northern Quebec. The share of the population reporting themselves as North American Indian, Inuit or Métis, though, increased in all regions of the North between 1981 and 1986. One factor influencing the relative growth of the Aboriginal population in the North is the high rate of out-migration among non-Aboriginals. Aboriginal people are also mobile, but they have generally migrated within clearly delineated areas of the North in keeping with their traditional seasonal activities such as hunting, fishing, and trapping.

A young population

The Canadian North has a relatively young population. In 1986, 51% of Northerners were under 25 years of age, compared with 38% of the Canadian population. At the same time, only 3% of Northern residents, compared with 10% of the total population, were aged 65 and over. As with the overall population, the Northern population is aging.

Aboriginal people in the North are somewhat younger, on average, than Northern non-Aboriginals. For example, in 1986, 62% of Aboriginal people, compared with 44% of non-Aboriginals, were under 25 years of age.

Educational differences

There are major differences in the educational attainment of the Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal populations in the North. In fact, the discrepancy in educational achievement between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people is even greater in the North than in the country as a whole [1]

In 1986, 10% of non-Aboriginals aged 15 and over living in the North had a university degree, the same percentage as for Canada overall. At the same time, only 13% of Northern non-Aboriginals, compared with 18% of those in Canada overall, had less than Grade 9.

In contrast, more than half (54%) of Aboriginal Northerners aged 15 and over had less than Grade 9 in 1986, although this was down from 59% in 1981. In fact, only 20% of Aboriginal Northerners had even completed high school, and just 0.5% had a university degree.

There are also considerable differences in the educational attainment of different Aboriginal groups in the North. In 1986, 64% of adult Inuit had less than Grade 9, compared with 55% of Indians, and 30% of Métis.

Labour market activity

Employment and income data paint a portrait of a dual Northern economy. The non-Aboriginal population tends to be strongly attached to the labour force, with particularly large concentrations in professional and administrative activities. They also have relatively high incomes, partly in compensation for the cost of living in the North.

On the other hand, Aboriginal people have much less attachment to the mainstream labour market, have much higher unemployment rates, have lower incomes, and are much more dependent on government transfers as a source of income than their non-Aboriginal counterparts.

In 1986, 76% of non-Aboriginal men living in the North were employed, compared with 68% for all Canadian men. Similarly, Northern non-Aboriginal women were also more likely than their

Language retention in the North

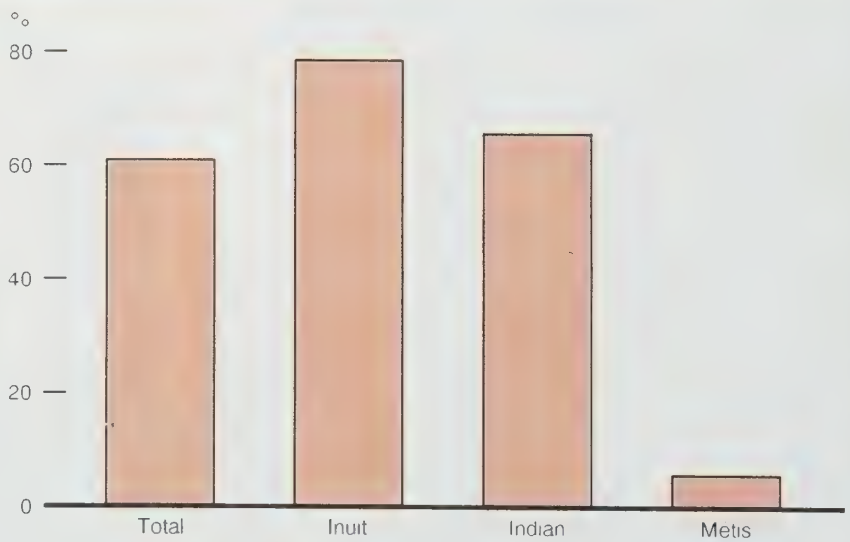
A major concern of Aboriginal people everywhere in Canada, and especially in the North, is the preservation of their culture through the maintenance of Aboriginal languages.

The use of Aboriginal languages in the home is generally quite high in the North. In 1986, 61% of all Aboriginal people in this region still used an Aboriginal language at home, with the figure ranging from as high as 95% in Northern Quebec to as low as 6% in the Yukon.

Rates of Aboriginal language use are particularly high among the Northern Inuit and Indian populations. In 1986, 74% of Inuit and 59% of Indians reported using an Aboriginal home language. In contrast, only about 4% of Métis had an Aboriginal home language.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of Northern Aboriginal people with an Aboriginal home language, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

[1] Comparative figures for Southern Aboriginals refer to those people who reported only Aboriginal origins.

Canadian counterparts to be employed: 49% compared with 45%. In contrast, only 28% of Northern Aboriginal men and 21% of women were employed in 1986.

Unemployment rates among Aboriginal people in the North were well above those for non-Aboriginals. In fact, the proportions of both Northern Aboriginal men and women who were unemployed exceeded the shares with jobs. In 1986, 31% of Aboriginal men and 24% of native women were unemployed.

Unemployment rates for Northern non-Aboriginals were just 11% for men and 15% for women. These figures, however, were somewhat higher than in the rest of Canada, where 9% of non-Aboriginal men and 11% of women were unemployed.

There are also differences in the occupational distribution of Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people in the North. The largest occupation category for both populations is the professional/administrative/clerical category, which includes managerial and related occupations. This category, however, accounted for a somewhat greater share of non-Aboriginal (44%) than Aboriginal (35%) workers in 1986. The concentration of employment in this sector, particularly among non-Aboriginal people, reflects the strong presence of the public sector in the North in the form of administrative activities, health care, and other public services.



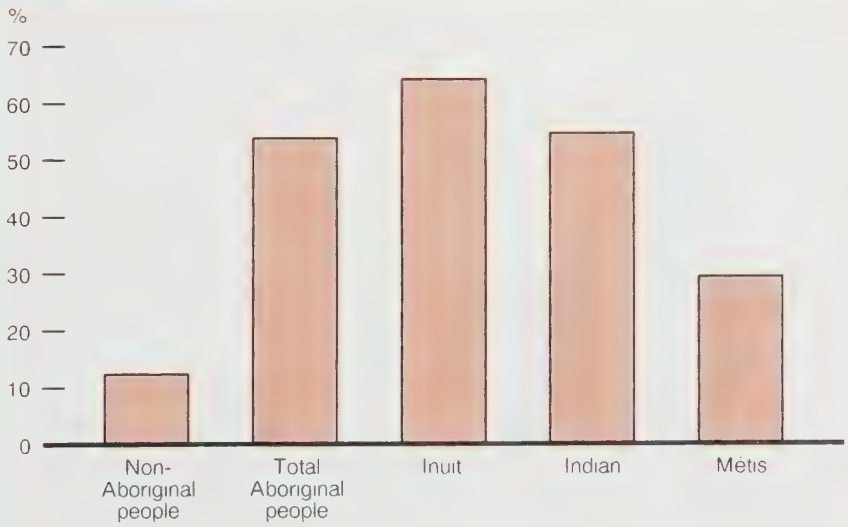
Aboriginal people also appear to be distributed in smaller proportions than non-Aboriginal people in primary industries, and construction/manufacturing.

It should be noted that the relatively small percentage of the Aboriginal population in primary occupations may be due to the fact that many natives do not identify traditional Aboriginal activities such as hunting, trapping, and fishing as work. Thus, potentially large numbers of Aboriginal people may not have been included in this occupational category in the 1986 Census.

On the other hand, Northern Aboriginals are more concentrated in other services and other occupations such as transport equipment operating and material handling.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of Northern Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people aged 15 and over with less than Grade 9, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Income

The incomes of people living in the North reflect, in large part, their labour force characteristics. The average income[2] of non-Aboriginal people in all Northern regions was higher than the average for Canadians as a whole. In 1985, non-Aboriginal Northerners had an average income of $22,200, compared with $18,300 for non-natives in Canada overall. The difference was especially large in the Northwest Territories, where non-Aboriginals received an average of over $27,000, $9,000 more than the average for all Canadians.

The high average income of non-Aboriginals in the North is due, in part, to the special cost of living allowances granted many employees in this region. Thus, while their nominal incomes are, on average, greater than what they would receive in the same jobs elsewhere in Canada, their real incomes, that is, those adjusted for the higher cost of living, may not be any greater.

[2] Refers to income received from all sources including employment, transfer payments, and other sources such as investments.



Northern Aboriginal people, on the other hand, have substantially lower average incomes than non-Aboriginals. However, their incomes were about $1,200 a year more than Aboriginal people living elsewhere in Canada in 1985. That year, Aboriginal Northerners had an average income of under $12,000, just 54% the average of non-Aboriginal Northerners.

These income figures, however, do not include income-in-kind from activities such as hunting and fishing. If Aboriginal people do earn more income than others through such activities, the actual income gap between them and non-Aboriginals may be smaller than these figures suggest.

There are also differences in the primary sources of income of people in the North and the rest of Canada, and between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people living in the North.

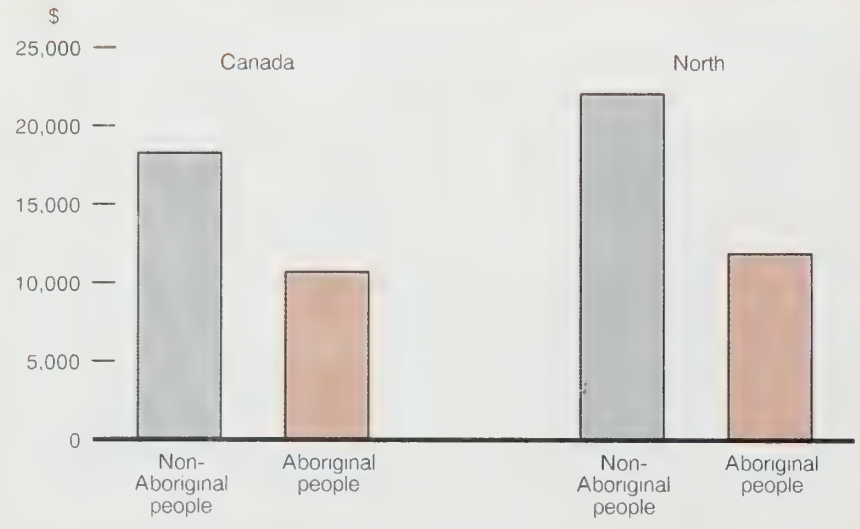
A higher percentage of the population in the North derives income primarily from employment than is the case in the rest of Canada. This pattern holds for both Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people.

Aboriginal people in the North, though, are much more likely than their non-Aboriginal counterparts to derive income primarily from government transfers.[3] In 1985, transfer payments were the major source of income of 29% of Northern Aboriginal people, almost three times the proportion for non-Aboriginals (11%).

In large part, differences in income reflect the difficulties many Aboriginal people encounter in mainstream labour markets. These problems may result from discrimination, lower levels of educational attainment, or cultural values that may be at odds with standard workplace expectations.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average income of Canadian and Northern Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people, 1985



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada.

Family and household composition

In 1986, 83% of family units in the North were husband-wife families, a proportion slightly higher than for all Canada (81%). There was considerable variation, however, in family patterns within the North. Northern Aboriginal families were less likely to be two-parent families than were non-Aboriginal family units, although they were more likely to have both parents present in the household than were Aboriginal families in the rest of Canada.

In 1986, 24% of Northern Aboriginal families were lone-parent families. This was below the figure for Aboriginal families in all of Canada (39%), but well above the rate for Northern non-Aboriginal families (12%).

The proportion of families headed by male lone parents was also comparatively large among Aboriginals in the North. In 1986, 30% of all lone-parent Northern Aboriginal families were headed by men, compared with 17% of all Aboriginal lone-parent families in Canada. For Northern non-Aboriginal lone-parent families, the proportion was 25%.

Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal families in the North are, for the most part, about the same size as comparable families in the rest of Canada. These relationships tend to hold for both husband-wife and lone-parent families.

Aboriginal families in the North, however, are somewhat larger than non-Aboriginal families in this region. Among husband-wife families, 19% of Aboriginal families had more than four children, compared with just 2% of non-Aboriginal family units.

Housing conditions

Housing is one of the major determinants of the level of welfare of a population.

[3] Transfer payments are non-wage payments from governments to individuals, including Family Allowances, Old Age Security, Unemployment Insurance, and social welfare payments.

Housing conditions for non-Aboriginal people in the North are similar to those in the rest of the country, whereas those for the Aboriginal population lag well behind.

For example, in 1986, the average number of persons per room for non-Aboriginal households in the North (0.54) was roughly the same as the norm for Canada as a whole (0.47). In contrast, there was an average of almost one person per room in Aboriginal private dwellings in the North.

Differences in crowding are even sharper when the proportion of homes with more than two persons per room is considered. This is a problem that affects only a very small proportion of both Northern non-Aboriginal homes (0.3%) and households in Canada as a whole (0.1%). In contrast, 7% of Northern Aboriginal households in 1986 had more than two persons per room, although this was down from 10% in 1981.

A relatively large proportion of Aboriginal homes in the North lacks central heating. In 1986, 27% of native homes were heated by fireplaces, space heaters, or stoves. While this figure was down from 32% in 1981, it remained well above rates for Northern non-Aboriginal dwellings (13%) and for all Canadian homes (5%).

Allan Maslove *and* **David Hawkes** *are both professors with the School of Public Administration, Carleton University.*

- This article is based on **Canada's North: A Profile** by the same authors. It is part of Statistics Canada's **1986 Census Focus on Canada Series.**

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THE INUIT

by Andrew J. Siggner



The Inuit, formerly known as Eskimos, are the traditional residents of Canada's Far North. Mostly, they occupy small communities north of the treeline in a region stretching from Inuvik in the Mackenzie River Delta, through the Arctic Islands and Baffin Island, along the coast of Hudson Bay and Ungava Bay in Quebec, to the east coast of Labrador.[1]

Historically, the Inuit have been a hunting, fishing, and gathering society. Today, their ties to the land are still central to their cultural identity, although some Inuit also take part in the modern Northern economy through involvement in activities such as oil and gas exploration and development, tourism, mining, and public administration. Nevertheless, because of the geographic remoteness of the Inuit, their demographic and socio-economic characteristics differ quite dramatically from those of the rest of Canada's population.

According to the 1986 Census, a total of 27,290 persons reported themselves as having only Inuit origin. They represented 10% of all people who reported their origins as Aboriginal;[2] however, they made up just 0.1% of the total Canadian population.

Concentrated in the North

In 1986, the majority of Inuit lived in three Northern regions: 64% were in the Northwest Territories; 24% resided in Northern Quebec; and 7% were in Labrador. The remaining 5% were scattered throughout the rest of Canada.

[1] This article covers all Inuit in Canada, whereas the preceding article included only those in Northern regions. As a result, there may be some discrepancies in numbers.

[2] Includes only those who reported a single Aboriginal origin: Inuit, North American Indian, or Métis.

The Inuit represented about one-third of residents of the Northwest Territories, as well as 15% of those in Northern Quebec, and 6% in Labrador.

Many children, few elderly

The Inuit are a young population. In 1986, 40% of the Inuit were younger than age 15, compared with just 22% of the Canadian population overall. Almost another quarter of the Inuit (24%) were aged 15-24, whereas the corresponding figure for all Canadians was 17%.

At the other end of the age range, fewer than 3% of the Inuit were aged 65 and over, compared with 10% of the total Canadian population.

The proportions of the Inuit in different marital status categories reflect the young age structure of the population. Among Inuit aged 15 and over, more than four out of ten (42%) were single in 1986, compared with just over a quarter (27%) of all Canadians in the same age group.

The proportions of the Inuit in other marital status categories were lower than the figures for the total Canadian population. While half the Inuit were married, the proportion for all Canada was 61%. Similarly, just 3% of the Inuit were separated or divorced, compared with 6% of all Canadians. Widows and widowers made up another 5% of the Inuit, but 6% of the total population.

Aboriginal languages strong

Most Inuit use their Aboriginal language, Inuktituk, at home. In 1986, almost two-thirds (64%) of the Inuit reported Inuktituk as their home language. Another 24% spoke English at home, while 9% spoke more than one language. French was the home language of only 3%.

A majority (66%) of the Inuit, however, could speak English, whereas just 4% were able to speak French. Close to three out of ten (28%) Inuit, though, could speak neither English nor French. The relatively high proportion of Inuit unable to speak either official language is likely a reflection of the geographic isolation of their communities and the strength of their Aboriginal language in those areas.

Few migrants

The dominance of Aboriginal languages among the Inuit may also be reinforced by their tendency not to move away from their communities. In 1986, just 12% of the Inuit were in a different community from the one where they had lived five years earlier; the comparable figure for all Canadians was 20%.

Little education beyond high school

The level of formal education of the Inuit tends to be low. The majority (60%) of Inuit aged 15 and over never attended high school, while another 23% had been high school students but did not graduate.

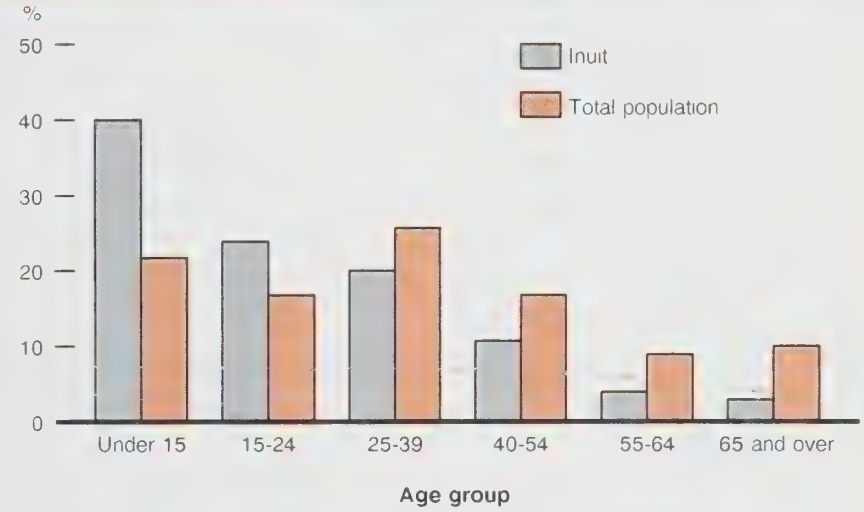
At the other end of the education scale, 14% of Inuit people had at least some community college or university. This proportion included 7% who had a trades or community college diploma, and 0.2% who were university degree-holders.

Labour and income

Official definitions of labour force participation and unemployment are not fully appropriate for Aboriginal people such as the Inuit, many of whom live in remote communities and pursue a traditional way of life. Those who live on the land often are not shown in official statistics as participating in the labour force because what they produce is consumed rather than sold in the marketplace. Partly as a result, a large proportion of the Inuit, both men

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

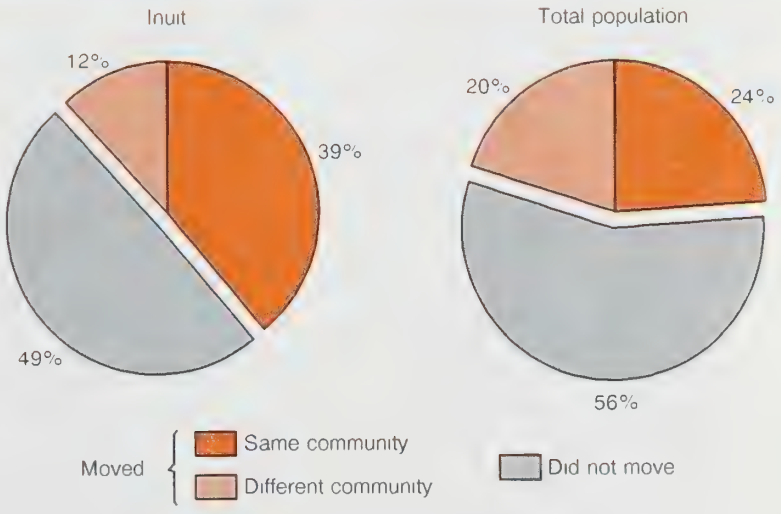
Age distribution of Inuit and total population, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada, Aboriginal Peoples Output Program.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Proportion of Inuit and total population who moved between 1981 and 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada, Aboriginal Peoples Output Program.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Labour force activity of Inuit and total population, by sex, 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, 1986 Census of Canada, Aboriginal Peoples Output Program.

and women, were not classified as being in the labour force in 1986. Four out of ten Inuit men reported they were not in the labour force, a proportion almost equal to the percentage who said they were employed. Among Inuit women, over half were not in the labour force, considerably more than the proportion who were employed.

The occupations of those Inuit men and women who were in the labour force diverged sharply. Whereas 40% of men had white collar jobs, that is, managerial/professional, sales/service, or clerical jobs, the percentage of women was 88%.

Among Inuit men, almost equal percentages were in managerial/professional occupations (19%) and construction (18%). Sales/service jobs accounted for another 14%, and transportation, 12%. Those reporting that they held clerical positions or jobs in primary occupations, such as hunting, trapping, fishing, and mining, both represented 8% of Inuit men. The rest were in product fabrication (6%), materials handling (4%), processing/machining (3%), and a variety of other occupations (8%).

The three most common occupations for Inuit women were sales/service (32%), managerial/professional (30%), and clerical (27%). The only blue collar occupation that accounted for more than 2% of Inuit women was product fabrication (4%), which includes jobs such as fur and jewellery manufacture and repair.

Incomes low

The average 1985 income of those Inuit who received income was $11,100: $13,100 for men and $8,700 for women. These amounts were well below the Canadian average of $18,200: $23,300 for men and $12,600 for women.

Also in 1985, more than a quarter (26%) of Inuit aged 15 and over reported no cash income; this included 19% of men and 34% of women. These proportions were much higher than those for the country as a whole: just 13% of all adult Canadians had no income in 1985 (7% of men; 19% of women).

Andrew J. Siggner *is Head of the Aboriginal Data Unit with the Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division, Statistics Canada.*

INDIAN MORTALITY

by Ellen Bobet

In recent years, death rates among North American Indian people in Canada have dropped dramatically. Despite this decline, mortality rates among Indians continue to exceed those of the total population by a wide margin.

Compared with Canadians in general, Indian people are much more likely to die from accidents or violence, including suicide, and from respiratory conditions. They are less likely to die of cancer, while death rates from diseases of the circulatory system are about the same in the Indian and total Canadian populations.



Death rate down

The death rate among Indian people has fallen in recent years, although it remains above the national level. The age-standardized mortality rate among Indians was 9.0 per 1 000 popu ion in 1986, a drop from 11 8 in 1978 Even so, the 1986 figure for Indian pe e was still about one and a ha f times th ational rate (6.6).

The c ifference death rates is particularly pronounc among people under age 35. During the 83-1986 period, for example, Indian d h rates were at least three times greater an those for all Canadians in this age r ge.

By contrast, aft ge 50, Indian death rates are closer national levels. For instance, at ages 54, the rate among Indians was 956 c s per 100,000 population, compare th 536 for all Canadians; at ages 70-7 he figures were 3,868 for Indians an ,282 for the total population.

Infant mortality r lown

Infant mortali ates have declined among both In s and all Canadians during the past c u ter century. But while infant mortality has fallen more rapidly for Indians than for n n-Indians, the Indian rate remains sub tantially above the national level.

In 1986, the Indi n infant mortality rate was 17.2 deaths per 1,000 live births,

Health problems in Indian communities

Records of visits to nursing stations operated by the Medical Services Branch of Health and Welfare Canada in seven isolated Indian settlements in Quebec indicate that respiratory conditions, ear/nose/throat diseases, and skin problems were the main reasons residents sought health care. Other frequent health problems for Indians resulted from accidents and digestive diseases.

Relative to their share of the population, infants accounted for a large proportion of all Indian visits to medical facilities. By contrast, those aged 15-24 were less likely than other age groups to visit the nurse.

Data for Saskatchewan present a picture basically consistent with the Quebec findings. In 1987, the most common reasons Indian people required hospital care, aside from childbirth, were respiratory conditions, diseases of the digestive system, and injuries. Hospital separation rates for Indian people were at least double the provincial average at all ages, with Indian children under age 5 four to eight times as likely as non-Indian children to be hospitalized.

Information on chronic diseases among Indian people in the Western provinces suggests that diabetes is a serious problem and that tuberculosis rates continue to exceed the Canadian average by a wide margin.

Data for on-reserve Indians in Saskatchewan, Alberta, and British Columbia show that diabetes was the most frequently reported chronic condition, with rates ranging from 6.2 to 11.9 per 1,000 population.

Although tuberculosis rates among Indian people have been falling, this trend seems to have slowed recently, and there have been outbreaks in some areas. Also, rates of tuberculosis among Indian people remain far higher than among non-Indians. For instance, in 1986, the rate of new active cases among Saskatchewan Indians was 125 per 100,000 population, compared with just 6 for the province as a whole.

down from 79.0 in 1960. The 1986 figure for Indians, though, was still more than twice that for all Canada (7.9).

Much of this difference between Indian and national infant mortality rates is attributable to deaths after the first month of life (post-neonatal). In fact, for the period around birth (neonatal), Indian death rates are fairly close to the national average.

The Indian neonatal mortality rate averaged 6.9 deaths per 1,000 live births during the 1982-1985 period, only 28% higher than the national average (5.4). The post-neonatal death rate among Indians, however, was almost four times the overall Canadian level: 11.0 deaths versus 3.0 deaths per 1,000 live births. During the same period, there were an average of 12.1 stillbirths for every 1,000 live births among Indian women, compared with 4.7 for all Canada.

More Indians victims of accidents and violence

Indian people are far more likely to die as a result of accidents or violence than are Canadians in general. Accidents and violence accounted for 32% of all Indian deaths reported over the 1978-1986 period, compared with just 8% of those in the total population.

Nonetheless, the incidence of accidental deaths among Indian people has declined in recent years. The age-standardized Indian death rate from this cause fell 45%, from 321 per 100,000 population in 1978 to 175 in 1986. Meanwhile, the accidental death rate for the whole population declined 25%, from 69 to 52 per 100,000 people.

About a third of all accidental Indian deaths result from motor vehicle mishaps, while shootings and drownings each account for 10%. The remaining accidental deaths are attributable to a variety of other causes, such as house fires, exposure, and drug overdoses.

Accidental deaths are highest among Indian men. During the 1983-1986 period, there were 378 accidental deaths for every 100,000 Indian men aged 15 and over. This contrasts with a rate of 95 for all Canadian men.

Indian women and children are at a much lower risk of being killed in an accident. The accidental death rate among Indian women aged 15 and older averaged 128 per 100,000 population during the years 1983-1986. This level, however, was still over three times the rate for Canadian women in general.

Accidental death rates among Indian children were also relatively low. For example, there were an average of 31 accidental deaths for every 100,000 Indian children aged 5-9 during the 1983-1986 period; for those aged 10-14, the figure was 45. Again, these rates were well above those for all Canadian children. In the general population, there were just 12 accidental deaths for every 100,000 5-9-year-olds, and 14 for 10-14-year-olds.

High suicide rate

Suicide rates in the Indian population are more than twice the national level. During the 1983-1986 period, the suicide rate among Indians averaged 34 per 100,000 population, compared with an average of

Health-related conditions in Indian communities

Location
- 15% of households are on reserves more than 50 km from the nearest large town; 36% are on reserves within 50 km of a major town.
- the other 49% of households are off-reserve, often in large cities.

Water supply
- many communities have several systems.
- about 3/4 of communities have individual or community wells.
- in about half of communities, at least some houses use a piped system.
- in almost 1/4 of communities, some or all residents rely on "self-haul" methods.

Sewage
- most communities use a septic disposal system or equivalent.
- about 22% of communities have a piped system with treatment.
- a substantial proportion use pit privies or leaching pits.
- 32% of on-reserve households have no indoor bathroom.

Emergency medical evacuation
- in half of communities, patients can be evacuated to hospital in 30 minutes or less; in 5% of communities, medical evacuations can take 3 hours or more.
- most (74%) communities can evacuate patients by road; the rest require some combination of road, water, or air transport.

Community services
- 14% of communities have ambulance service.
- 42% of communities have a child-care worker.



14 for all Canada over the years 1983-1985.

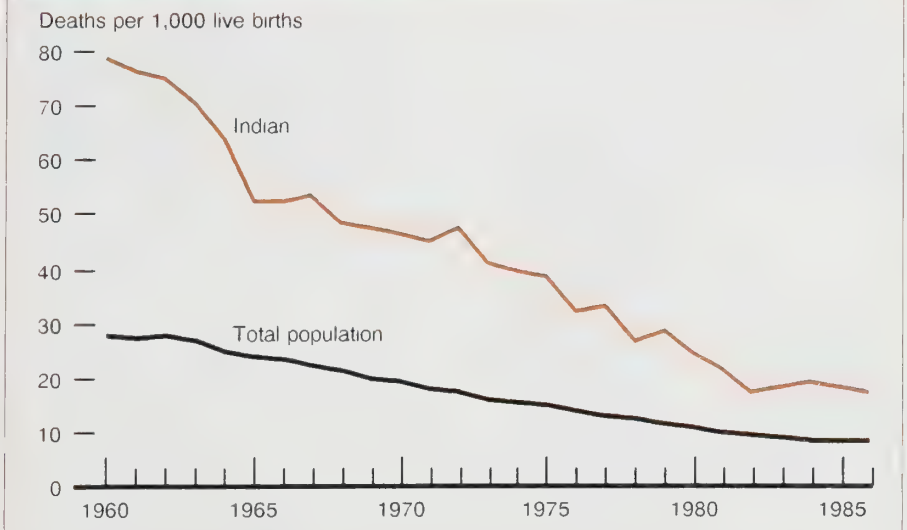
As is the case for the total population, Indian suicide rates are generally much higher among men than women. Indian men and women differ, however, in the age at which they tend to commit suicide.

Among Indian men, suicide rates are extremely high at ages 15-29, but fall at older ages. The highest Indian suicide rate occurs among men aged 20-24. During the 1983-1986 period, the average rate for Indian men in this age group was 171 per 100,000 population, more than five times the rate for all Canadian men the same age.

Suicide rates among Indian men, however, decline at successively older ages, in sharp contrast to the trend for Canadian men overall. In fact, after age 55, suicide rates among all Canadian men exceed those of Indian men.

CANADIAN

Infant mortality rates for Indians and total population, 1960-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 84-206, and Health and Welfare Canada, Medical Services Branch.

On the other hand, suicide rates for both Indian and all Canadian women are generally higher among older age groups. For the years 1983-1986, the highest average suicide rate for Indian women was 29 per 100,000 population at ages 45-49. The suicide rate for all Canadian women also peaked at ages 45-49, but their 1983-1985 average was just 11 per 100,000 population.

Diseases of the respiratory system

Diseases of the respiratory system are also a more frequent cause of death among Indians than non-Indians. Over the 1983-1986 period, these diseases resulted in an average of 88 deaths per 100,000 population among Indians, compared with 51 for Canada overall. Furthermore, unlike many other major causes of death, there is no indication that deaths from respiratory diseases are decreasing in either the Indian or the total Canadian population.

Respiratory ailments are a major cause of death of Indian infants and native people aged 55 and over. As well, they are generally a more serious problem for men than for women, a pattern similar to that in the total population.

Lower cancer death rate

Indian people are generally less likely than other Canadians to die from cancer. During the 1983-1986 period, the age-standardized Indian death rate from

cancer averaged 118 per 100,000 population, compared with 172 for all Canada.

The lower cancer mortality rate, however, held only for Indian men, as rates for Indian women aged 25-44 were not significantly below the national average for women in this age range.

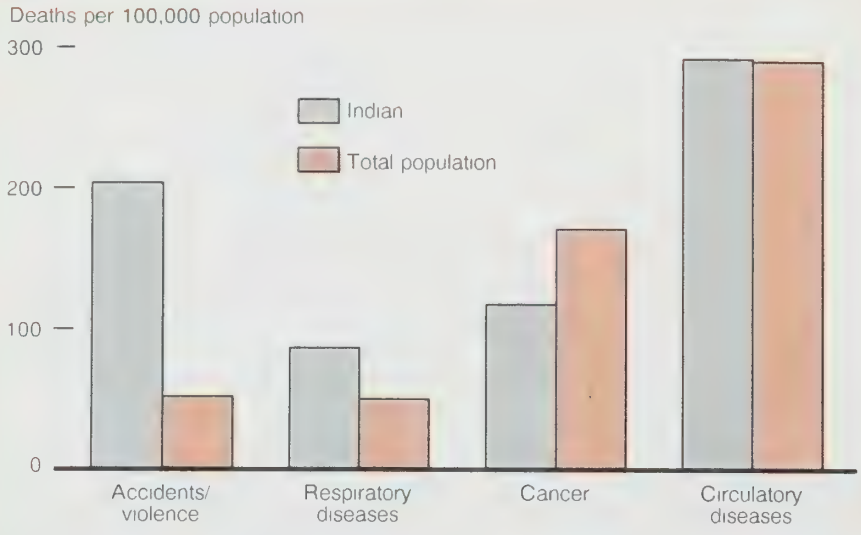
Diseases of the circulatory system

Indian people are about as likely as other Canadians to die from diseases of the circulatory system. Over the 1983-1986 period, age-standardized death rates for these diseases were 294 per 100,000 population for Indians and 291 for the total Canadian population. Since 1978, death rates from this cause have declined by almost a third for both groups.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Age-standardized death rates for Indians and total population, by cause, 1983-1986 average



Source: Health and Welfare Canada, Medical Services Branch.

Indian mortality data

Data on Indian mortality are provided by regional offices of the Medical Services Branch of Health and Welfare Canada. The information refers only to Status Indians living on reserves. Data collection procedures vary from one region to another.

In the Atlantic Provinces, mortality data are provided by Medical Services Branch field personnel, that is, the nurse who serves a particular reserve. Thus, these data pertain only to the on-reserve population. However, in the Atlantic region, Branch personnel visit every reserve, so all reserves are covered.

In Quebec, Indian mortality data include only communities where the Branch has field personnel. In fact, because the Branch does not have employees in a number of settlements, data are lacking for more than half the Indian population of Quebec.

Ontario data collection procedures are the same as in the Atlantic provinces and Quebec. However, figures are not available for 12 communities representing approximately 5% of Ontario's total on-reserve population.

Before 1985, Indian mortality data for British Columbia, covering all Status Indians in the province, were obtained from the provincial government. For human rights reasons, this practice was discontinued in 1985. Consequently, Indian mortality figures for 1985 and 1986 exclude British Columbia.

In the other provinces, information on Indian mortality comes from provincial data systems. Therefore, data pertain to all Status Indians in these jurisdictions.

Ellen Bobet *is a health data analyst with the Medical Services Branch, Health and Welfare Canada.*

PUBLIC LIBRARIES

by Donna Owens

With the increasing domination of cultural life by television and other electronic media, there has been much speculation in recent years about the decline of reading. Yet trends in the use of public libraries over the last decade seem to refute this impression. In fact, since the late 1970s, circulation of library material has increased substantially.

Part of this increase may be the result of greater availability and accessibility of library collections. The number of public libraries, the number of books on the shelves, and total spending on libraries have all grown in the last decade. And while books still constitute the bulk of material available, holdings such as "talking books," films, videos, and sound recordings have also increased significantly in the 1980s.



Steady rise in borrowing

The circulation of material held by public libraries has risen steadily since the late 1970s. In 1986, Canadians borrowed 167 million items, up 44% from 116 million in 1978. This translates into a rise in the circulation rate from about five transactions per person in 1978 to seven in 1986.

The greatest increase in library borrowing occurred between 1981 and 1983, when the number of transactions rose an average of 8% per year. Since then, annual growth in library borrowing has slowed, averaging less than 3% during the 1983-1986 period.

Spending up

Spending on public libraries has risen every year during the last decade. As a result, libraries' operating expenditures totalled $470 million in 1986, 33% more than in 1978, once inflation has been taken into account. In this period, per capita spending on public libraries, expressed in constant 1986 dollars, rose from $15.14 to $18.60.

More service points

Increases in public library borrowing and spending mirror a rise in the number of library service points. Between 1978 and 1986, the total number of permanent sites and mobile stations rose 10%, from about 2,800 to almost 3,100.

The vast majority of public library outlets, 97% in 1986, were permanent sites, while the remainder were mobile stations. In fact, during the 1978-1986 period, the number of mobile stations actually declined 28% from 131 to 94, whereas the number of permanent sites increased 12%.

As a result of the overall growth in the number of public library outlets, the ratio of service points to population has improved slightly since the late 1970s. In 1986, there was one outlet for every 8,200 people, compared with one for every 8,400 in 1978.

Non-traditional material increases

Books still constitute most of the material available in public libraries. In 1986, libraries held 57 million catalogued books, up 38% from 41 million in 1978. Public library holdings in 1986 also included more than five million uncatalogued paperbacks.

As well as books and other traditional reading matter such as newspapers and periodicals, libraries also offer a broad range of audio-visual materials such as "talking books," videos, and recordings. Moreover, in recent years, audio-visual holdings have increased far more rapidly than traditional library items.

For instance, between 1978 and 1986, public libraries' stock of "talking books" more than tripled, rising from 73,000 to 225,000. At the same time, there was more than a fourfold increase in the number of video materials from 16,000 to 68,000, while the number of sound recordings rose 82%, from 951,000 to 1.7 million.

High in west, low in east

Public library use, holdings, and spending per capita are typically higher in Ontario and the west than in the other provinces.

British Columbia and Alberta residents used libraries most frequently in 1986; circulation rates were close to 10 items per person in each province. Circulation rates were also high in Saskatchewan (7.6) and Ontario (7.5). Manitoba was the only Western province with a circulation rate (5.6) below the level for Canada overall (6.6).

By contrast, library use in provinces east of the Ontario-Quebec border was relatively low. There were only 3.3 library transactions per person in Newfoundland, and just 3.7 in Quebec. Circulation of library materials averaged about five items per person in Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.

Differences in circulation levels in the various provinces may be associated with the number of volumes available. This, in turn, reflects differences in spending on public libraries.

Public library holdings per person were above the national average in Ontario and all the Western provinces, except Manitoba, whereas they were below the national figure in each province east of the Ontario–Quebec border.

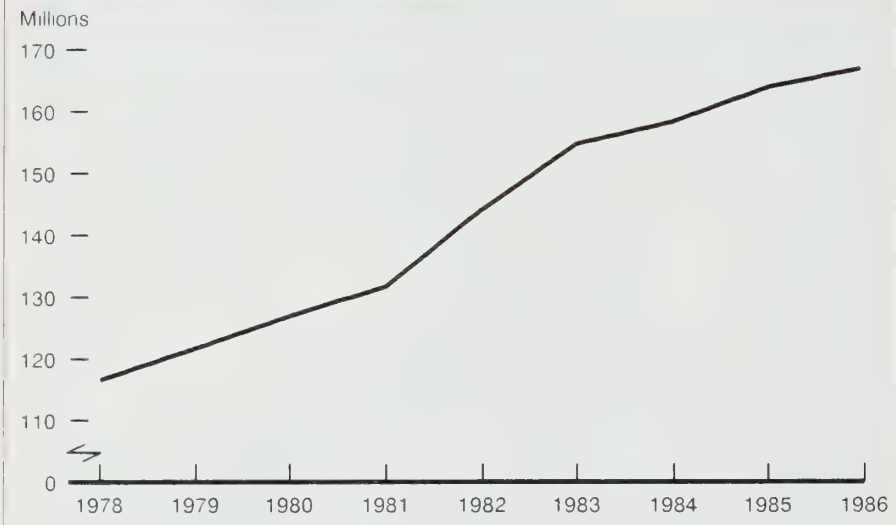
Per capita library operating expenditures were also above the national average ($18.60) in Ontario ($25.37), Saskatchewan ($21.54), British Columbia ($19.36), and Alberta ($18.86). Manitoba was the only Western province where library spending was below the national level. Still, the figure in Manitoba ($15.20) exceeded those in Quebec ($11.76) and each of the Atlantic provinces, where spending on libraries ranged from $8.26 per person in Newfoundland to $12.66 in Nova Scotia.

Quebec, however, had the largest growth in public library operating expenditures between 1978 and 1986; during this period, per capita spending in Quebec rose 73%. Increases in library spending also surpassed the national average (23%) in Manitoba (66%), Nova Scotia (45%), and Alberta (30%). By contrast, increases were below average in Newfoundland (14%), Ontario (12%), Saskatchewan (12%), British Columbia (6%), and New Brunswick (2%). In Prince Edward Island, per capita library operating expenditures actually declined 5% between 1978 and 1986.

Donna Owens *is an analyst with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.*

CANADIAN

Library transactions, 1978-1986



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogues 87-205 and 87-651.

Public library indicators, by province, 1986

	Circulation per capita	Volumes per capita	Spending per capita
			$
Newfoundland	3.3	1.6	8.26
Prince Edward Island	5.0	1.6	11.13
Nova Scotia	5.1	1.5	12.66
New Brunswick	4.6	1.8	8.65
Quebec	3.7	1.6	11.76
Ontario	7.5	2.8	25.37
Manitoba	5.6	1.8	15.20
Saskatchewan	7.6	2.6	21.54
Alberta	9.5	2.5	18.86
British Columbia	9.7	2.3	19.36
Canada	**6.6**	**2.2**	**18.60**

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 87-205.

PROFILE OF THE CANADIAN ARMED FORCES

by Carol Strike



The military in Canada today make up a small but significant segment of Canadian society. As with the overall population, there have been several changes in the demographic and socio-economic makeup of the Canadian Forces in recent years. Most notably, military personnel are now somewhat younger, on average, than in the early 1970s.

Also, the number of women among both officers and non-commissioned members has grown, and personnel have generally become better educated. In addition, Francophones represent a greater share of members than was the case a decade ago.

Forces growing

In 1988, there were 87,700 people in the Canadian Forces, up 6% from 83,000 in 1972. But the increase in the forces did not keep pace with total population growth, which amounted to 19% during the same period.

In the 1980s, however, the number of people in the military has increased quite rapidly, rising 9% between 1980 and 1988. In contrast, total military personnel actually declined somewhat during the 1970s.

There was particularly rapid growth in the number of officers between 1972 and 1988, although non-commissioned members (Warrant Officers, Sergeants, Corporals, and Privates) still account for the majority of personnel. During this period, the number of officers increased 20%, while the number of non-commissioned members rose only 2%. As a result, in 1988, 21% of all personnel were officers, up from 19% in 1972.

The majority of officers are at junior levels. In 1988, 57% of officers were Captains or Lieutenants, and 15% were officer cadets. At the senior ranks, Colonels and Majors accounted for 27% of all officers, while 1% were Generals.

Sergeants and Corporals made up the largest share of non-commissioned personnel. In 1988, these ranks accounted for 63% of all non-commissioned members. Another 25% were Privates, and the remaining 12% were Warrant Officers.

Military college students and graduates

In 1987, a total of 1,336 students were enrolled at Canada's three military colleges. The Royal Military College in Kingston accounted for 62% of those enrolled, while 20% were at Royal Roads Military College in Victoria, and 18% attended Collège militaire royal de Saint-Jean.

In 1987, the military colleges granted 361 degrees; of these, 328 were undergraduate degrees, and 33 were master's degrees. About nine out of 10 undergraduate degrees were earned by men, as were all but one of the master's degrees.

Members younger

At the end of the 1980s, Canadian Forces personnel tended to be somewhat younger than the group that was serving in the early 1970s. In 1988, more than half (53%) of members were under age 30; this compared with 45% in 1972. At the same time, the proportion aged 30-49 fell from 55% in 1972 to 44% in 1988.

Because retirement age in the military is 55, few personnel are aged 50 or over. Nonetheless, the percentage in this age bracket has risen, almost doubling from 1.5% in 1972 to 2.8% in 1988.

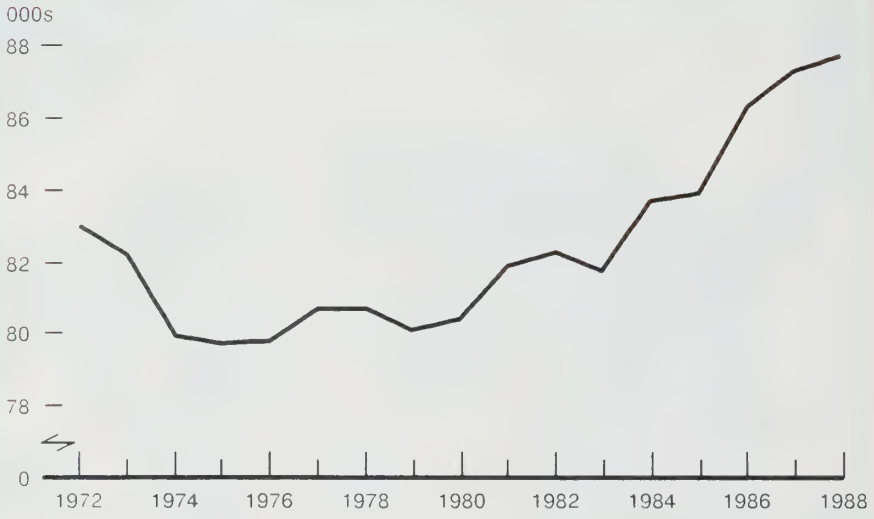
Years of service

Changes in the age profile of the Canadian Forces have been accompanied by changes in their level of experience. In 1988, 56% of personnel, compared with 44% in 1972, had served less than ten years.

The proportion of members with 10-24 years of service was 35% in 1988, a drop from 53% in 1972. However, the share of

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

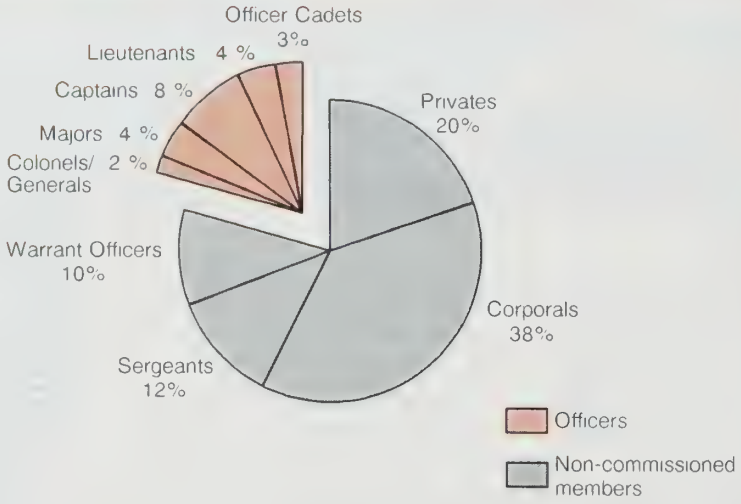
Canadian Forces personnel, 1972-1988



Source: Department of National Defence.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Rank of Canadian Forces personnel, 1988

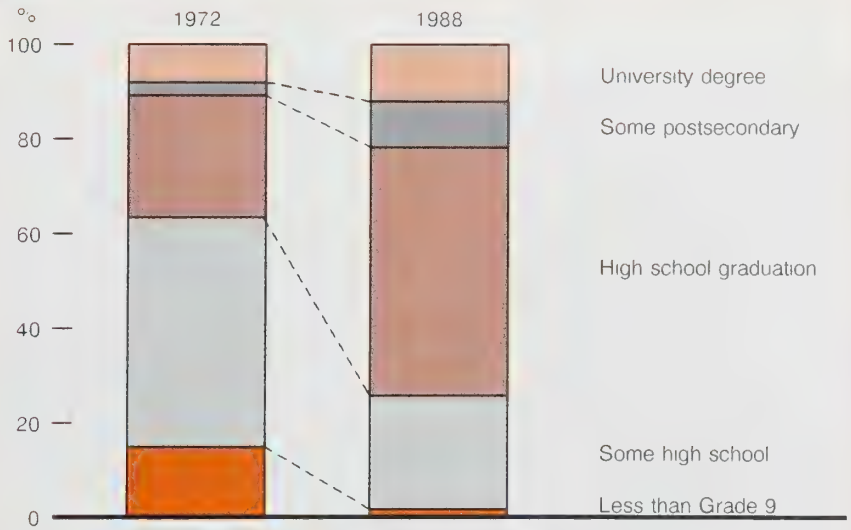


Source: Department of National Defence.



CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Highest level of education of Canadian Forces personnel, 1972 and 1988



Source: Department of National Defence.

Canadian Forces commands

The Canadian Forces are made up of National Defence Headquarters staff and personnel in six commands, which include Air, Maritime, Mobile, Training Systems, Europe, and Communications Commands. Just over one-quarter (26%) of all members are in Air Command, and almost as many (23%) are with Mobile Command. Headquarters accounts for 15% of all personnel, and Maritime Command, another 14%. The remaining members are distributed among Training Systems Command (10%), Canadian Forces Europe (9%), and Communications Command (4%).

personnel who had served 25 or more years grew from 3% to 9%.

Better-educated personnel

The level of education of Canada's military has risen steadily since the early 1970s. In 1988, 11% of all members had university degrees, up from 7% in 1972. During the same period, the proportion with community college diplomas also rose, from 2% to 8%.

At the other end of the education spectrum, the share of personnel with less than Grade 9 dropped from 15% in 1972 to 2% in 1988, while the percentage who had completed only Grades 9-11 fell from 49% to 24%.

Women increasing

Women's representation in the Canadian Forces has risen sharply since the early 1970s. In 1988, 10% of all personnel were women, compared with just 2% in 1972.

The Department of National Defence

In 1987, the Department of National Defence was the largest of all federal departments, comprising a total of almost 181,000 people. Nearly half (47%) of them were regular Forces personnel. Another 14% were Primary Reserve members, while 16% were in the Supplementary Reserve.

The Department of National Defence also employed 32,600 civilians, who made up 18% of the total departmental workforce. The remaining 5% of employees worked in Canadian Forces Exchange System (CANEX) outlets, which provide support for base recreational, community, and social activities.

Defence spending

In 1986, Canada spent $9.6 billion on defence. This represented 1.87% of the country's 1986 Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

According to the "Government Finance Statistics Yearbook" of the International Monetary Fund, defence spending as a percentage of GDP was considerably less in Canada than in either the United States (6.42%) or the United Kingdom (5.06%). Canada's expenditures were also proportionately lower than those of Sweden (2.96%), the Netherlands (2.93%), Australia (2.78%), and New Zealand (2.02%), but they were above those in Austria (1.26%) and Italy (1.56%).

Overall, women accounted for 9% of officers and 10% of non-commissioned members in 1988. Both these figures were up substantially from 1972, when 3% of officers and 2% of other ranks were women.

Although the number of women is increasing, a disproportionate share still occupy junior ranks. In 1988, 93% of female officers were at junior levels, compared with just 70% of male officers.

Similarly, 68% of female non-commissioned members were Corporals or Sergeants, and 29% were Privates, while the figures for men were 62% and 24%. Only 3% of women in the non-commissioned ranks were Warrant Officers, compared with 13% of men.

Differences in rank between men and women may reflect differences in length of service. In fact, the discrepancy in ranks is much smaller among recent recruits. For example, by 1988, about 30% of both male and female officers who enlisted between 1983 and 1987 had been promoted beyond Lieutenant.

Women's progress in the non-commissioned ranks was not as rapid. By 1988, 5% of women who enlisted during the 1983-1987 period had reached the rank of Master Corporal or higher, whereas the figure for men was 7%.

Annual income

Overall, the average employment income of Forces personnel is slightly greater than that earned by other full-time workers. In 1985, the employment earnings of military personnel averaged $28,600, compared with $26,800 for civilians working full-time.

There are considerable differences, though, in the incomes of Forces personnel depending on their rank and sex. Officers make considerably more than non-commissioned members.

In 1985, the average income of officers was $39,500: $39,900 for men and $32,600 for women. In comparison, non-commissioned members received, on average, $25,100: $25,500 for men and $21,100 for women.

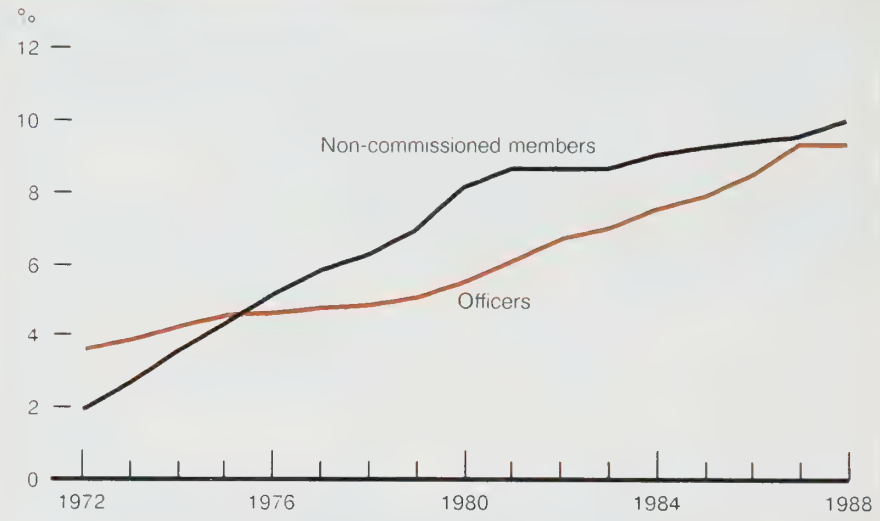
This discrepancy in the average incomes of men and women in the military is primarily due to differences in rank. Men and women in the Canadian Forces receive the same salary at every rank, but the clustering of women at junior levels results in lower average income figures.

Military occupations

Canadian Forces personnel work in a wide variety of occupations. For officers, the largest occupation groups in 1988 were engineers and pilots, who accounted for 25% and 15% of the total, respectively.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

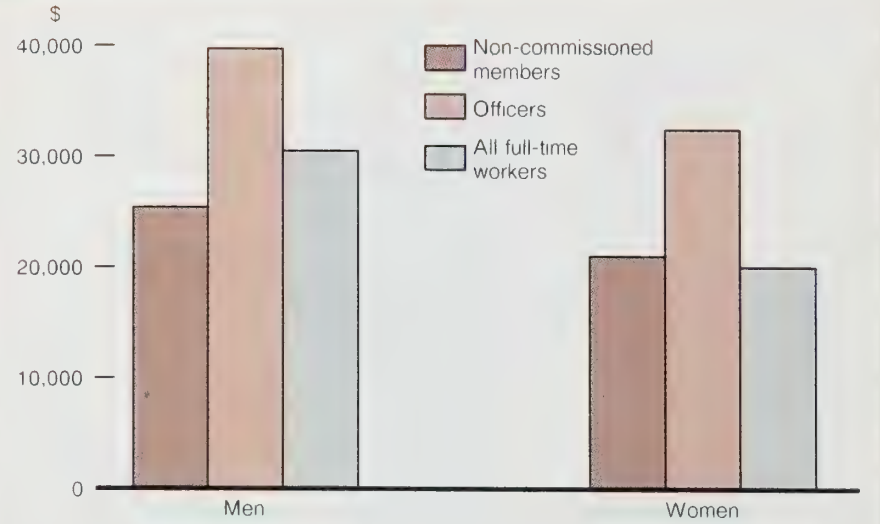
Women as a percentage of Canadian Forces personnel, 1972-1988



Source: Department of National Defence.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Average income of Canadian Forces personnel and all full-time workers, by sex, 1985



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 93-157 and 1986 Census of Canada.



Logistics officers made up another 11% of all officers, while Maritime and infantry officers each accounted for 7%. The remaining officers were in occupations that included medical and dental fields, security and intelligence, training, administration, and public affairs.

There is even more variation in the occupations held by non-commissioned members. Technicians constitute the largest occupation group at this level, accounting for 42% of all non-commissioned members in 1988. This category, however, includes occupations that range from weapons technicians and communications and radar systems technicians to medical and dental technicians. The remaining occupations of non-commissioned members vary from infantrymen, air crew, and boatswains to administrative clerks.

Traditionally, women in the Canadian Forces have filled support roles such as financial clerks and medical assistants. In recent years, however, more military occupations have been opened to women. In fact, a 1989 ruling required the Forces to admit women to all positions (except submarine service), including combat duty.

More Francophones

The proportion of Forces members who are French-speaking has risen since the early 1970s. In 1988, French was the first official language[1] of 27% of all personnel, a rise from 19% in 1972.

Francophones, however, are better represented at the lower ranks than among officers. In 1988, 28% of non-commissioned members spoke French as their official language, compared with 23% of officers.

Marital status related to age

Overall, the proportion of military personnel who are married is roughly the same as that in the total labour force. Canadian Forces members, however, are more likely to be single and less likely to be separated, divorced, or widowed than other working Canadians. In 1986, 62% of service personnel were married, just slightly below the figure for the total labour force (64%). On the other hand, 34% of Forces members were single, compared with 28% of other workers. And while 4% of Forces members were separated, divorced, or widowed, the proportion in the labour force was 8%.

[1] Refers to the language that Canadian Forces members designate they want to be used for their records.

The American military

In the United States, the armed forces are far more prominent than in Canada. Relative to the size of the population, the American military constitutes a larger group, and defence expenditures absorb a much greater share of the federal budget.

In 1986, the American armed forces numbered almost 2.2 million, about nine active duty personnel per 1,000 population. In comparison, there were only about three military personnel per 1,000 population in Canada.

The proportion of officers was lower in the American than in the Canadian Forces. Officers made up 14% of American service personnel in 1986, compared with 21% in Canada.

Women's representation in the armed forces of the two countries was similar. In both the United States and Canada, 10% of regular force personnel were women.

The relative importance of defence concerns is shown most clearly in expenditures. In 1986, national defence outlays amounted to almost 26% of federal spending in the United States, compared with just over 8% in Canada.

There has also been a trend toward more intra-service marriages. The proportion of personnel married to other Forces members has more than tripled, rising from under 2% in 1975 to 7% in 1988.

Service personnel who are members of husband-wife families are more likely than other husband-wife families to have children at home. In 1986, 70% of military husband-wife families had children; the corresponding figure for all Canada was 63%.

Recruiting trends

The annual number of Canadian Forces applicants and recruits fluctuated in the 1980s, largely as a result of the recession in the early part of the decade. High unemployment in the civilian labour force at that time made the prospect of military service more appealing and resulted in more applications to enlist. But high unemployment levels also deterred members from leaving the military. Consequently, there was a decline in the rate of attrition, that is, the percentage of all regular members who left the Forces. This, in turn, reduced the demand for new recruits.

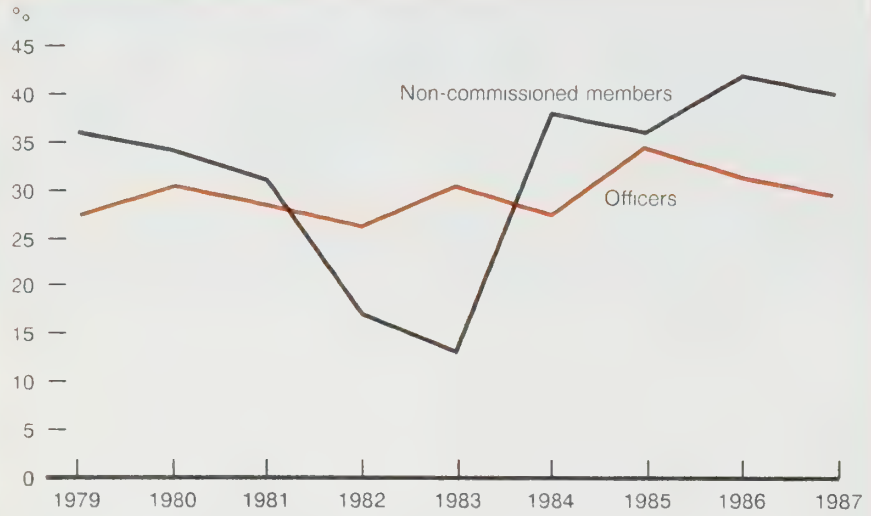
Between 1979 and 1982, the number of applicants for non-commissioned positions grew from 28,500 to 40,100. Meanwhile, the attrition rate of non-commissioned members fell from 11% in 1980 to 6% in 1983, so fewer recruits were needed. In 1982, at the height of the recession, only 6,700 recruits for non-commissioned positions, just 17% of all applicants, were accepted. This compared with 12,300 recruits, 31% of applicants, the previous year.

Recruiting trends among officers were somewhat less clearcut. The number of applicants for officer positions rose from 4,700 in 1980 to more than 6,000 in 1982, while the attrition rate for officers fell from 7% to 5% in the same period. The actual number of officers recruited, however, rose from fewer than 1,400 in 1980 to more than 1,500 in 1982. Yet, as proportion of all officer applicants, those recruited fell slightly, from 30% to 26%.

Since the recession, the number of applicants has fallen, but the proportion recruited has increased. In 1987, the Canadian Forces received about 20,000 applications: 5,600 for officer, and 14,700 for non-commissioned positions. Of those applicants, 37% were accepted: 29% for officer, and 40% for non-commissioned positions.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

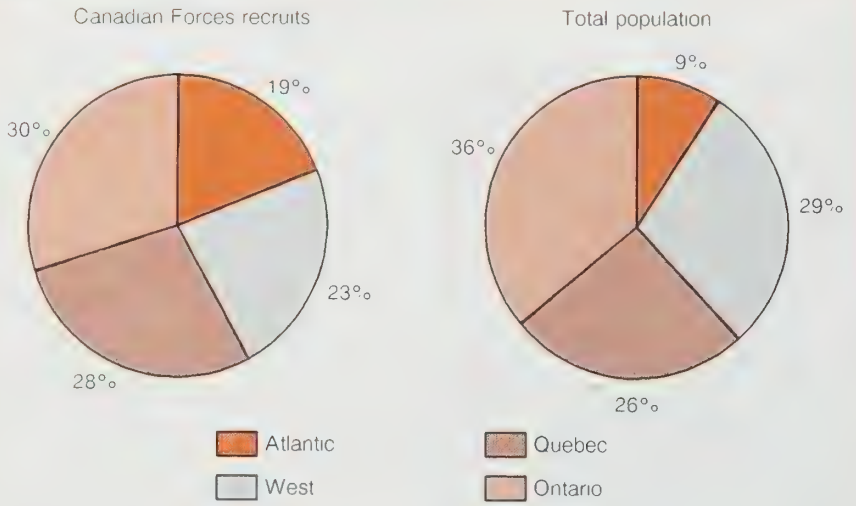
Percentage of Canadian Forces applicants enlisted, 1979-1987



Source: Department of National Defence.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Distribution of Canadian Forces recruits and total population, by region, 1988



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 91-210, and Department of National Defence.

Origin of recruits

The geographic origin of recruits differs somewhat from the distribution of the total population, with disproportionately high numbers coming from the Atlantic region and Quebec. In 1988, 19% of all recruits were from Atlantic Canada, although these provinces accounted for just 9% of the population. At the same time, 28% of recruits were from Quebec, whereas only 26% of all Canadians lived in this province. On the other hand, while 30% of recruits were from Ontario, and 23% came from the Western provinces, these regions made up 36% and 29% of the population, respectively.

Carol Strike *is a senior staff writer with* Canadian Social Trends.

HOW CANADIANS SPEND THEIR DAY

by Jo-Anne B. Parliament

People's daily activities give some indication of the overall quality of life in their society. As part of the 1986 General Social Survey, Statistics Canada collected information from Canadians aged 15 and over about how they spent their time. Respondents were asked what they did and for how long on a given reference day.[1]

According to this survey, Canadians spent the largest proportion of their day on personal care activities such as sleeping and eating. In fact, people spent almost half their day on these activities. The next largest portion of the day was spent working, either for pay or on family care responsibilities including housecleaning, child care, and shopping. Still, while personal care and work consumed the bulk of Canadians' time, a fair amount of the day was left for leisure pastimes.

There was considerable variation in the pattern of Canadians' activities, particularly between men and women. For example, men spent more time than women working for pay, while women, even those with jobs outside the home, devoted more time to family care.



Personal care activities

Personal care accounted for the largest share of the daily life of Canadians. In 1986, these activities consumed an average of 11 hours a day for people aged 15 and over. Most of that time, over eight hours, was spent sleeping. Another hour and a half was spent eating, including snacks and meals at restaurants, while

[1] While the methodology used in the General Social Survey provided a fairly complete overview of what Canadians do on a daily basis, certain activities are probably underreported. Because respondents were asked to list only their primary activity at any given time, the total time reported for activities such as listening to the radio or caring for children, which are often done at the same time as something else, may not accurately reflect the actual time spent on these activities.

activities such as washing and dressing accounted for 40 minutes daily. The remaining half hour of personal care time was spent relaxing or attending to a variety of other personal activities.

Women whose main activity was keeping house devoted more time to personal care than either men or women employed in the labour force. Women keeping house averaged almost 11½ hours a day on personal care, compared with just over 10½ hours for employed women and 10¼ hours for employed men.

At work

Work and work-related activities also consume a large proportion of the average day of Canadians. Overall, in 1986, adult Canadians put in a total of just under seven hours a day in either paid work and related activities or family care.[2]

Paid work and related activities accounted for about 3½ hours a day when averaged over the total adult population with and without paid jobs. However, those who actually participated in paid work spent an average of 8¼ hours per day on work and related activities. One of the related activities, travel time to and from the job, worked out to just over three-quarters of an hour a day.

Canadians spent almost as much time on family care activities in the home as on work for pay. In 1986, people aged 15 and over averaged about three hours a day on family care activities. Domestic work, which includes housecleaning and meal preparation, accounted for 1¾ hours a day, while activities such as care of children and shopping took up roughly 1¼ hours.

Differences between men and women

Not surprisingly, there was considerable variation in the daily activities of men and women. Even among those whose main activity was paid work, men worked longer hours than women, while women spent more time on family care.

Men employed outside the home worked about 75 minutes more a day than their female counterparts: seven hours compared with 5¾ hours.[3] Part of this difference is attributable to the higher percentage of men than women working full-time.

On the other hand, women employed outside the home spent an average of over three hours a day on family care activities, compared with under two hours for employed men. The largest part of this difference, an hour a day, involved chores such as housecleaning and meal preparation.

Time spent per day on selected activities, by employment status and sex, November 1986

	Employed men	Employed women	Women keeping house	Total population
	hours/minutes per day			
Work for pay	7:04	5:49	0:22	3:35
Family care:				
- housecleaning/ meal preparation	0:53	1:53	3:44	1:45
- child care	0:15	0:27	1:03	0:25
- shopping	0:39	0:54	1:15	0:53
- total family care	**1:47**	**3:13**	**6:02**	**3:03**
Personal care:				
- sleeping	7:53	8:06	8:37	8:25
- eating	1:21	1:15	1:39	1:25
- washing/dressing	0:35	0:51	0:38	0:40
- other personal care	0:25	0:25	0:31	0:31
- total personal care	**10:14**	**10:37**	**11:25**	**11:01**
Leisure time:				
- media/communication				
- television/rented movies	2:08	1:31	2:29	2:20
- other media	0:05	0:06	0:09	0:08
- reading	0:22	0:19	0:26	0:27
- total media/ communication	**2:35**	**1:56**	**3:04**	**2:55**
- socializing	0:59	1:05	1:17	1:08
- sports/hobbies	0:35	0:29	0:58	0:45
- organizational/voluntary/ religious activities	0:10	0:16	0:22	0:15
- other leisure activities	0:25	0:22	0:20	0:24
- total leisure time	**4:44**	**4:08**	**6:01**	**5:27**
Education and other activities	0:11	0:13	0:10	0:54
Total	**24:00**	**24:00**	**24:00**	**24:00**

Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, November 1986.

As well, men whose main activity was work for pay were less likely than employed women to actually engage in family care activities. For example, 83% of employed women participated in activities such as housecleaning and meal preparation, compared with just 51% of men. The percentages of employed men participating in child care and shopping were also much lower than for comparable women.

However, the total time invested in work outside the home and family care by employed men and women was roughly equal: 8¾ hours per day for men and nine hours for women.

As would be expected, women who reported keeping house as their main activity spent considerably more time than anyone else on domestic work. Overall, they spent a total of six hours a day on

[2] All amounts of time have been averaged over seven days.

[3] Includes those who did not work on the reference day.



these chores: 3¾ hours on cleaning and meal preparation; 1¼ hours on shopping; and about one hour on child care.

Leisure time

While personal care and work-related activities account for most of Canadians' day, they still enjoy a considerable amount of leisure time. In fact, Canadians spent an average of about 5½ hours daily on leisure activities in 1986. Most of that time was devoted to media and communication activities, particularly watching television. On average, adult Canadians watched TV or rented movies 2¼ hours a day.[4]

Canadians averaged about half an hour a day reading. Although a relatively low percentage of adults, just under 20%, actually engaged in this activity, those who did spent almost three hours a day reading.

Socializing took up a little over an hour a day. This included visiting or entertaining friends and relatives, socializing in a bar, and talking on the telephone.

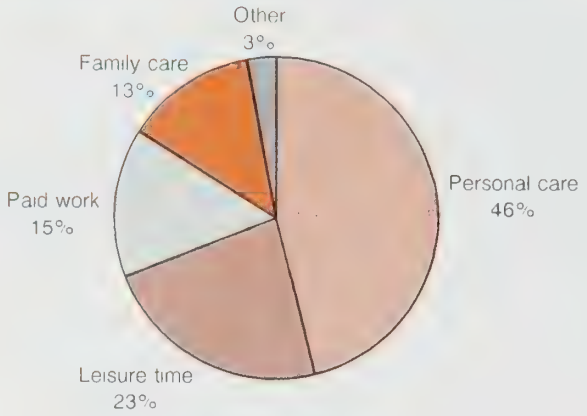
Sports and hobbies, organizational, voluntary and religious activities, and attendance at entertainment events such as movies also accounted for some of Canadians' time. On average, the population aged 15 and over spent 45 minutes a day participating in sports and hobbies, while other entertainment activities accounted for an average of just under half an hour a day, and voluntary activities, 15 minutes.

When averaged over only actual participants, considerably more time was invested in these activities. For example, people who participated in organizational or other voluntary work averaged around 2¾ hours a day on these activities, about

[4] This is less than the almost 3½ hours a day devoted to watching television reported in the Autumn 1989 issue of **Canadian Social Trends**. The data in that article, however, included television viewing as a secondary or tertiary activity, whereas in this article it was counted only when it was the primary activity.

CANADIAN

Distribution of time spent on daily activities, November 1986



Source: Statistics Canada, General Social Survey, November 1986.

the same total that enthusiasts invested in sports and hobbies. Those who attended events such as movies, sports, and concerts averaged about two hours a day on these activities.

The leisure patterns of employed people and women who keep house differ substantially. Women who work at home tend to have the most leisure time, while employed women tend to have the least. Women at home spent an average of six hours a day on leisure activities, compared with 4¾ hours for employed men and just over four hours for employed women.

Women keeping house spent more time on media and communication activities, especially television viewing. Overall, women at home watched television an average of 2½ hours a day, compared with just over two hours for employed men and 1½ hours for employed women. Women at home also spent about half an hour more a day on sports and hobbies than men and other women. They also spent more time socializing.





About the General Social Survey

The General Social Survey, conducted by Statistics Canada, gathers a variety of data on socio-economic trends not available through existing sources. The survey is taken annually, with a sample size of about 10,000 households. Besides time use, the General Social Survey has covered topics such as health and social support (1985), language and social mobility (1986), crime and accidents (1988), and work and education (1989).

More information on this survey is available from:

General Social Survey
Housing, Family and Social Statistics Division
Statistics Canada
R.H.Coats Bldg., 17-F
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0T6
(613) 951-0466

Jo-Anne B. Parliament *is Associate Editor of* Canadian Social Trends.

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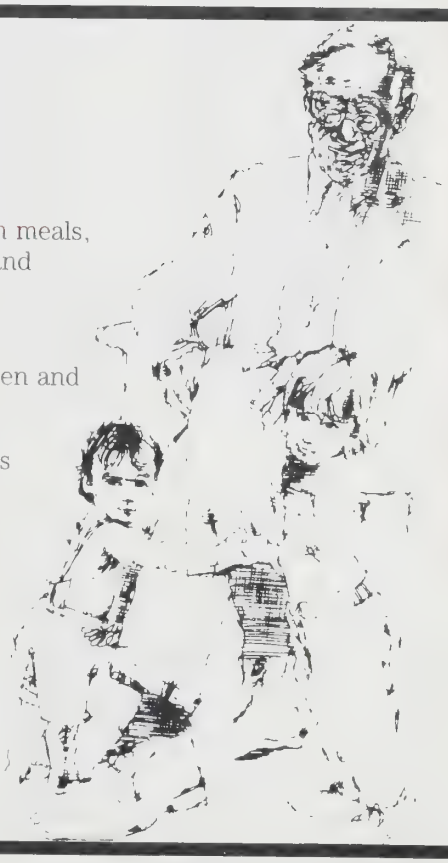
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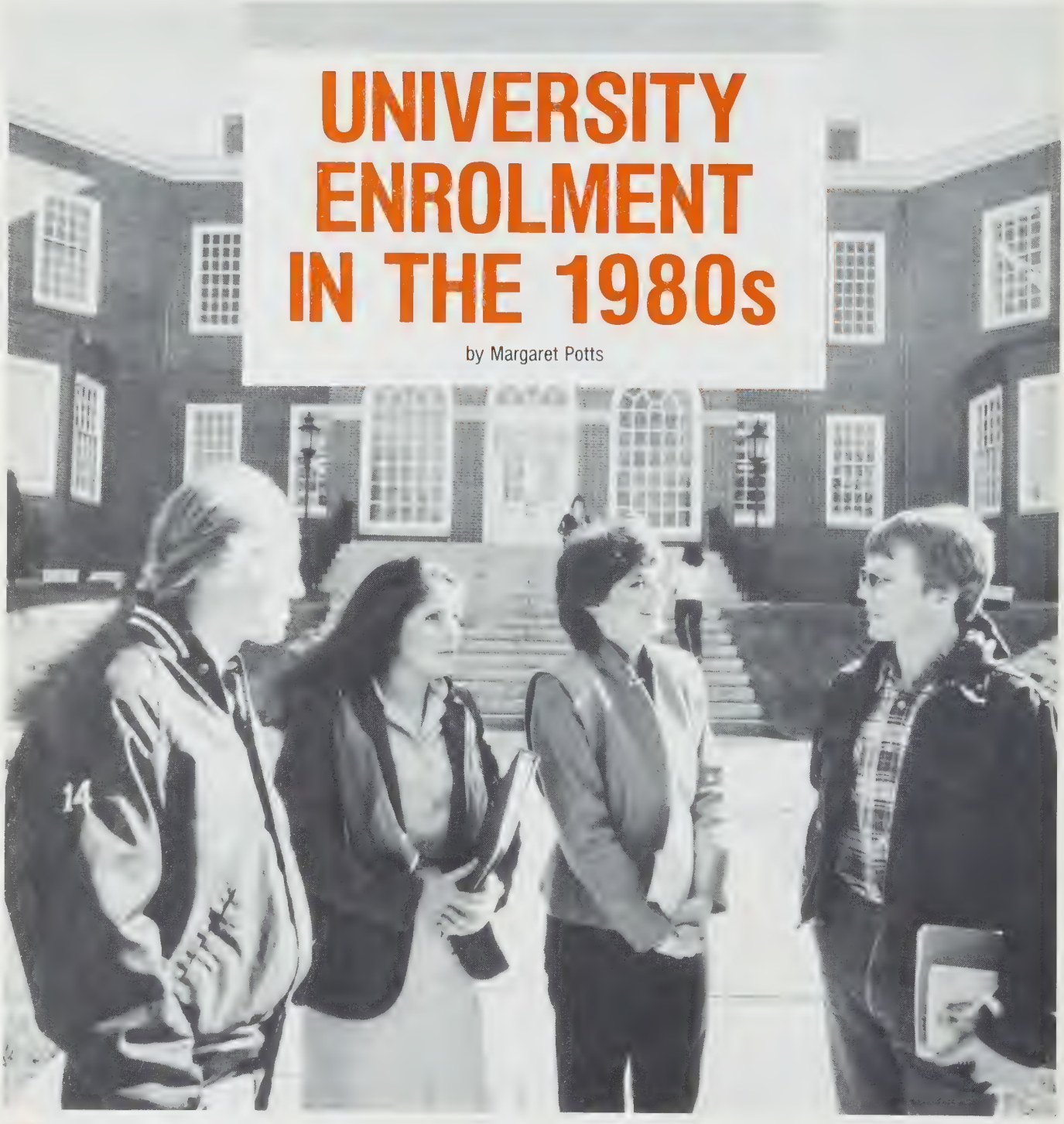
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UNIVERSITY ENROLMENT IN THE 1980s

by Margaret Potts



During the late 1960s and early 1970s, full-time enrolment in Canadian universities rose phenomenally as the large Baby Boom generation passed through the prime age range for post-secondary education. At the time, it was expected that this would be a temporary situation, and that pressure on universities would ease in the 1980s when the relatively small cohort born during the 1960s reached university age. Instead, the number of full-time students has continued to increase in recent years, largely because a growing proportion of young people, especially women, are going to university.

Enrolment up

Between 1980 and 1988, full-time enrolment[1] at Canada's universities rose 30%, from 382,600 to almost half a million (499,200).

There were increases in both undergraduate and graduate enrolment. Between 1980 and 1988, the number of full-time undergraduates rose 30% from 338,000 to 439,300, while enrolment at the graduate level increased 34% from 44,700 to 59,800.

Faster increases among women

During the 1980s, the number of women enrolled at university has grown about twice as fast as the number of men. From

[1] Includes students in bachelor's, master's and doctoral degree programs, those in diploma/certificate programs, and medical interns and residents.

1980 to 1988, female undergraduate enrolment increased 44%, compared with an 18% rise in the number of male undergraduates. As a result, in 1988, women actually made up a slight majority of undergraduate students. That year, 51% of all full-time undergraduates were women, a rise from 46% in 1980.

Women's repesentation in graduate programs increased even faster than in undergraduate studies, although women remain a minority of full-time graduate students. Between 1980 and 1988, the number of female graduate students rose 52%, compared with a 27% rise in the number of men. By 1988, women made up 41% of full-time graduate enrolment, up from 36% in 1980.

Fewer young adults; higher enrolment rates

The upturn in full-time university enrolment in the 1980s happened at the same time as the number of 18-24-year-olds, the age group most likely to attend university, was falling. After peaking at 3.3 million in 1982, the number of people in this age group declined 13% to 2.9 million in 1988.

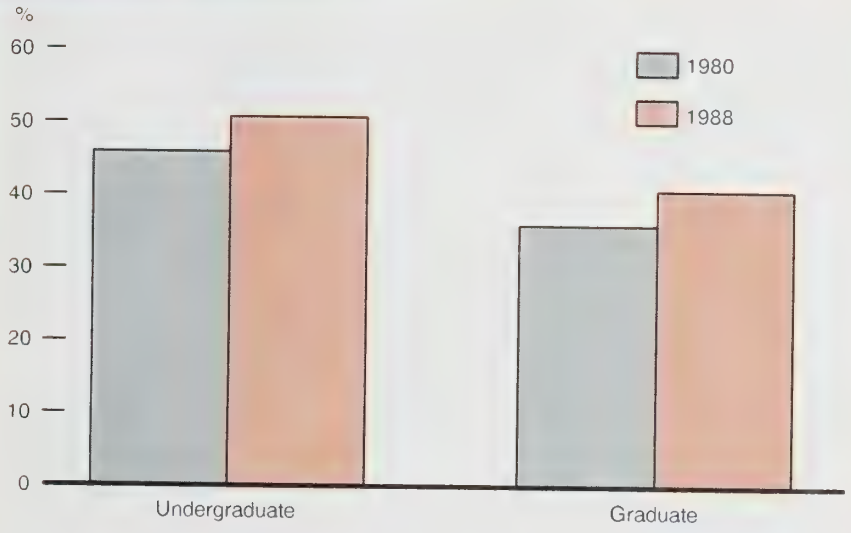
However, while the size of the young adult population has diminished, the percentage attending university has increased. The proportion of 18-21-year-olds enrolled full-time in universities rose from 11% in 1980 to 16% in 1988. In the same period, the enrolment rate of people aged 22-24 increased from 7% to more than 9%.

There were particularly rapid increases in the enrolment rates of women. In fact, by 1988, the proportion of women aged 18-21 enrolled full-time was greater than that of men in this age range. In 1988, 18% of women aged 18-21 were full-time university students, whereas the corresponding figure for men was just 14%. By comparison, in 1980, 11% of both men and women had been enrolled.

The increase in the enrolment rate of women aged 22-24 was also faster than that of men. However, women in this age group were still less likely than men to be full-time university students. In 1988, 9% of women aged 22-24 were in university, compared with 10% of men. The 1980 enrolment rates had been 5% for women and 8% for men.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

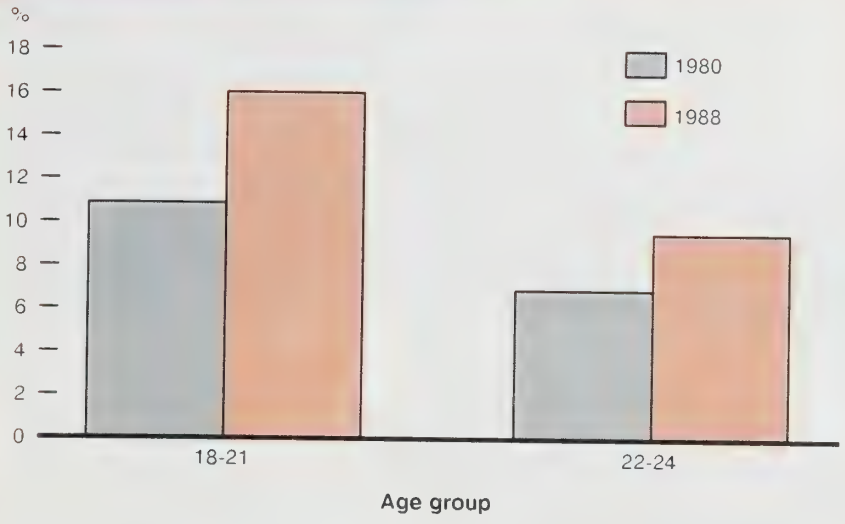
Women as a percentage of full-time university students, by level, 1980 and 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Percentage of people aged 18-24 enrolled full-time in university, 1980 and 1988



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-229.

Slight shifts in program choices

During the 1980s, there was little change in the distribution of full-time university students among different fields of study.

The proportions of undergraduates in agriculture/biological sciences, humanities, mathematics/physical sciences, and social sciences rose slightly, while the shares in other disciplines declined. The largest increase was in humanities, which accounted for 9% of all undergraduates in 1988, compared with 7% in 1980. The sharpest decline occurred in engineering/applied sciences, which had 9% of all undergraduates in 1988, down from 11% in 1980.

Nonetheless, the overall distribution of undergraduates changed little. In 1988, 32% of students at this level were in the social sciences, while 15% were in general arts and sciences, 10% were in education, and 7% in agriculture/biological sciences. Health professions and mathematics/physical sciences each accounted for another 6% of undergraduates, and 3% were enrolled in fine and applied arts.

At the graduate level, there were increases in the share of enrolment in mathematics/physical sciences and



engineering/ applied sciences, while the proportions in humanities and social sciences declined.

Even so, the social sciences still represented the largest share of all graduate students (28%) in 1988. Another 19% were in the health professions, and 13% were in humanities. Education, engineering/applied sciences, and mathematics/physical sciences each accounted for another 10% of total graduate enrolment, while 7% were in agriculture/biological sciences, and 2% were in fine and applied arts.

Different choices for men and women

At both the undergraduate and graduate levels, men were more likely than women to enroll in engineering/applied sciences and mathematics/physical sciences. In contrast, much higher percentages of women than men were in education and humanities.

Among undergraduates in 1988, 16% of men were in engineering/applied sciences, compared with just 3% of women. In mathematics/physical sciences, the figures were 8% for men and 3% for women.

At the same time, 13% of female undergraduates, compared with 7% of men, were in education, while humanities accounted for 11% of women and 8% of men.

As well, the proportion of women in the health professions at the undergraduate level was twice that of men. In 1988, 8% of female undergraduates were enrolled in a health-related program, mostly nursing, whereas the figure was just 4% for men.

Differences in the enrolment patterns of men and women at the graduate level were similar to those of undergraduates. Almost 16% of male graduate students were enrolled in engineering/applied sciences, compared with just 3% of women. In mathematics/physical sciences, the proportions were 14% for men and 5% for women.

On the other hand, higher proportions of women than men were enrolled in education and humanities. The proportions of male and female graduate students in the health professions, however, were virtually identical.

Increases in part-time university enrolment

The increase in full-time university enrolment during the 1980s was accompanied by a rise in the number of part-time students. Between 1980 and 1988, total part-time enrolment increased 25% from 245,100 to 306,200.

Part-time enrolment rose at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. The number of undergraduates increased 26% from 213,000 to 268,500, while at the graduate level, the increase was 17% from 32,100 to 37,600.

Women accounted for most of the growth in part-time enrolment. Between 1980 and 1988, the number of women enrolled part-time rose 38% among undergraduates and 51% at the graduate level. At the same time, the number of men studying part-time rose 14% among undergraduates, and actually declined in graduate studies. Consequently, by 1988, women made up the majority (64%) of part-time students at the undergraduate level, as well as half of those in graduate programs.

Fields of study of full-time university students, 1988

	Undergraduate			Graduate		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
			%			
Agriculture/biological sciences	5.9	7.2	6.6	7.6	7.2	7.4
Education	7.1	12.8	10.1	5.4	14.1	9.0
Engineering/applied sciences	15.7	2.5	8.9	15.7	3.3	10.6
Fine/applied arts	2.7	4.0	3.4	1.6	2.9	2.1
Health professions	4.0	7.6	5.8	18.9	19.1	19.0
Humanities	7.6	11.2	9.4	10.8	16.7	13.2
Mathematics/physical sciences	8.4	3.1	5.7	13.5	5.1	10.1
Social sciences	31.2	31.8	31.5	26.0	30.7	27.9
General arts/sciences	13.8	15.8	14.9	0.3	0.3	0.3
Not reported	3.6	3.8	3.7	0.3	0.5	0.4
Total	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**	**100.0**
Total number of students	**214,979**	**224,355**	**439,334**	**35,362**	**24,481**	**59,843**

Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 81-204.

Margaret Potts *is a senior technical officer with the Education, Culture and Tourism Division, Statistics Canada.*

HOSPITAL CARE IN THE 21ST CENTURY

by Kirk Hamilton and Hélène Trépanier



Older people generally make the greatest use of health care services; as a result, demands on facilities such as hospitals are likely to grow rapidly in Canada in the next several decades as the population ages.

The pressure on hospitals is apt to become most acute in the second decade of the next century when the large generation born during the Baby Boom begins turning age 65. As they passed through childhood and young adulthood, this group put great pressure on a variety of institutions, including schools, universities, and the job market. Health care services will likely be severely affected when this generation reaches retirement age.

The elderly population in the 21st century

Both the absolute number of people aged 65 and over and their share of the total population have increased significantly in the last several decades. Moreover, both figures will continue to grow well into the next century.

The number of elderly Canadians nearly doubled in the last two decades, rising from 1.5 million in 1966 to 2.7 million in 1986. It has been projected that by 2016, the number of Canadians aged 65 and over will have more than doubled again to 5.7 million, and that by 2036, the elderly population will have risen to 8.4 million.

In fact, people aged 65 and over are projected to account for 25% of all Canadians in 2036, up from 8% in 1966, 11% in 1986, and 18% in 2016.

Hospital utilization and the elderly

Historically, the elderly have required a large proportion of the total hospital bed-days in Canada. For example, in 1984, the elderly accounted for 51% of all hospital bed-days, although they constituted only 10% of the overall population that year.

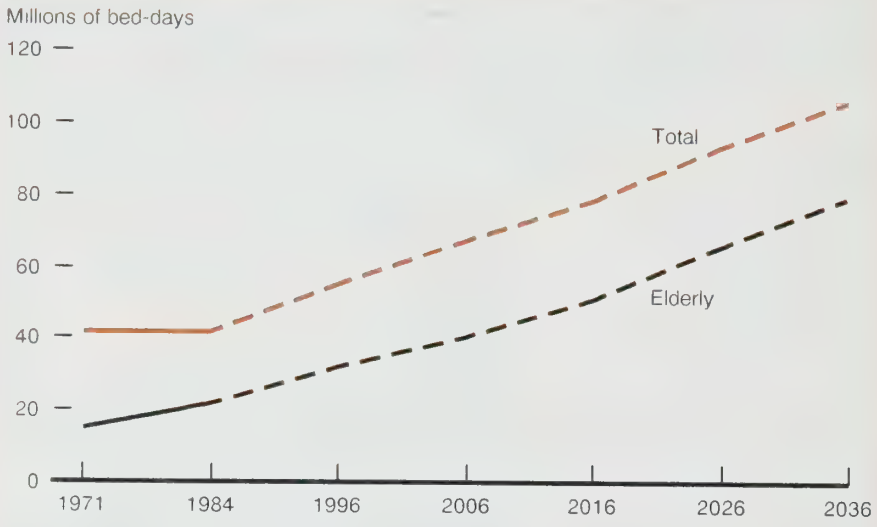
The divergence between the proportion of the elderly in the population and their hospital utilization indicates the extent to which hospitalization increases with age. In 1984, people aged 75 and over spent an average of almost 14 days a year in hospital, while those aged 65-74 averaged almost 5 days a year. In contrast, the next highest figures were around 2 days per year for both people aged 45-64 and children who had not reached their first birthday. For almost all other age groups, the average number of hospital bed-days worked out to less than one per person per year.

Hospital bed-days to rise

Based on current utilization rates, total hospital bed-day requirements are expected to increase dramatically in the next several decades, with almost all of the increase accounted for by people aged 65 and over.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

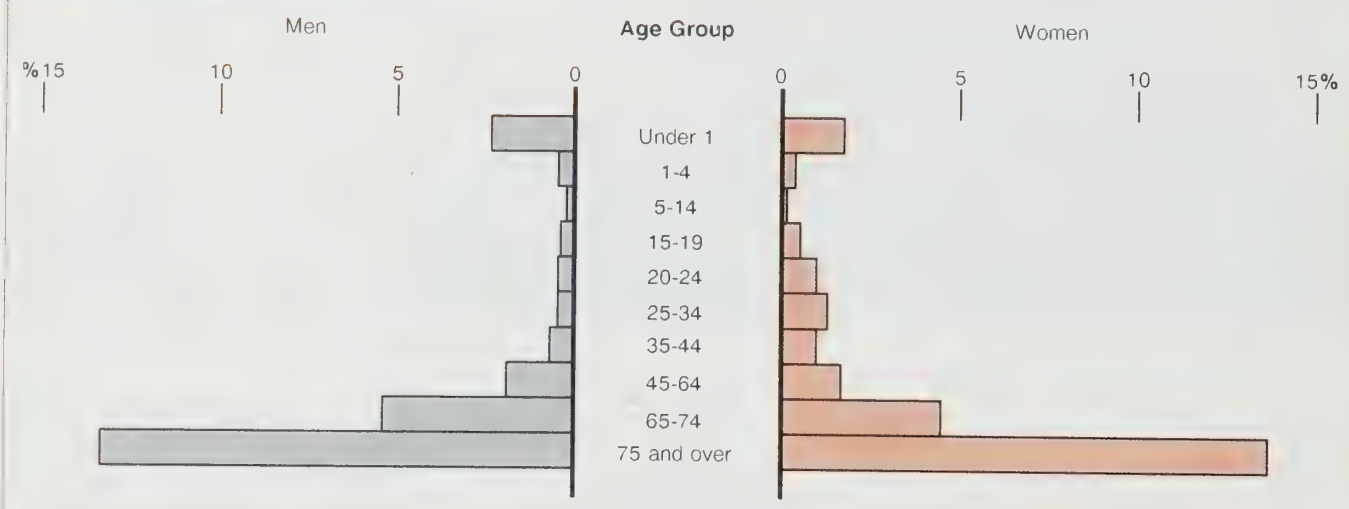
Total hospital bed-days, 1971-2036



Sources: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-206 and Environment and Natural Resources Program.

CANADIAN SOCIAL TRENDS

Hospital bed-days per person, by age and sex, 1984



Source: Statistics Canada, Catalogue 82-206.



Historical and projected population estimates,[1] 1966-2036

	Total population	Population aged 65 and over	Percentage of total population aged 65 and over
	millions		%
1966	20.0	1.5	8
1976	23.0	2.0	9
1986	25.3	2.7	11
1996	28.2	3.6	13
2006	30.6	4.4	14
2016	32.5	5.7	18
2026	33.7	7.4	22
2036	34.0	8.4	25

[1] Estimates from Statistics Canada's Population Projection Number 3, which assumes medium fertility and high net immigration.
Source: Statistics Canada, Demography Division.

Projected hospital bed-day requirements, 1996-2036

	Hospital bed-days			
	Total	For the population under age 65	For the population aged 65 and over	Percentage of total hospital bed-days accounted for by the population aged 65 and over
	millions			%
1996	54.8	23.5	31.2	57
2006	66.7	26.8	39.8	60
2016	78.2	28.3	49.9	64
2026	93.0	27.6	65.4	70
2036	105.5	27.0	78.5	74

Source: Statistics Canada, Environment and Natural Resources Program.

Projected future hospital care needs

The projected requirements for hospital care were calculated by combining population projections with assumptions about the rate of hospital utilization.

Population estimates are from Statistics Canada's Population Projection Number 3. This projection is based on three key assumptions: a significant increase in longevity; relatively high net immigration; and a return to medium fertility levels. Although fertility in Canada is currently at historically low levels, the assumption of continued low fertility might be too extreme for the purposes of long-term projections.

Projections of hospital utilization were based on utilization rates by age and sex for 1984, the latest year for which these series were available. The hospital utilization rates must be interpreted with care, however, since they reflect both current institutional structures and supply factors, as well as current rates of illness requiring hospitalization.

In the future, there could be changes in health delivery systems, with other types of institutions and home care providing alternatives to hospitalization. The introduction of new treatments for cardiovascular disease and cancer, today's leading causes of death, would also have a large impact. There could also be cumulative effects from changing lifestyles, including improved diet, increased exercise, declines in smoking, and reductions in workplace risks.

As well, in some ways, the hospital utilization projections represent a worst-case scenario for aging and health. By assuming increased life expectancy, but fixing current rates of hospitalization, there is an implicit assumption that the extended years of life will be largely extended years of ill health.

It should also be emphasized that, unlike Statistics Canada's population projections, the projections for future health care requirements in this article are not official projections or forecasts. Rather, they are estimates calculated by the authors to support the discussion of future demands for hospital care.

Overall, it is projected that hospital bed-days will increase almost two and a half times in the next five decades, rising from 41.5 million in 1984 to over 100 million by 2036.

Most of the projected increase in total bed-days is made up of bed-days for elderly people. In fact, the elderly account for 90% of the total projected increase in bed-days for the entire population.

Hospital utilization by people aged 65 and over is projected to almost double from 21.0 million bed-days in 1984 to around 40 million in 2006:, and then almost double again to close to 80 million in 2036.

These projections indicate that, based on current utilization patterns, by early in the next century the hospital bed-days required by the elderdy will almost equal current levels for the whole population. By the middle of the third decade of the 21st century, the bed-days required by the elderly will represent about twice the current total hospital utilization figures.

Another result of this growth is that the share of all bed-days accounted for by the elderly will also likely rise, from just over 50% in 1984 to an estimated 74% in 2036.

Both authors are with the Environment and Natural Resources Section, Statistics Canada. **Kirk Hamilton** *is manager of this program;* **Hélène Trépanier** *is co-ordinator of systems and technical support.*

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SOCIAL INDICATORS

	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
POPULATION								
Canada, June 1 (000s)	24,341.7	24,583.1	24,787.2	24,978.2	25,165.4	25,353.0	25,617.3	25,911.8
Annual growth (%)	1.2	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.1
Immigration[1]	129,466	134,920	105,286	87,504	84,062	88,051	125,696	150,898
Emigration[1]	43,609	45,338	50,249	48,826	46,252	44,816	51,040	41,003
FAMILY								
Birth rate (per 1,000)	15.3	15.1	15.0	15.0	14.8	14.7	14.4	*
Marriage rate (per 1,000)	7.8	7.6	7.4	7.4	7.3	6.9	7.1	*
Divorce rate (per 1,000)	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.6	2.4	3.1	3.4	*
Families experiencing unemployment (000s)	693	984	1,066	1,039	990	915	872	789
LABOUR FORCE								
Total employment (000s)	11,001	10,618	10,675	10,932	11,221	11,531	11,861	12,244
- goods sector (000s)	3,711	3,376	3,317	3,404	3,425	3,477	3,553	3,693
- services sector (000s)	7,290	7,242	7,359	7,528	7,796	8,054	8,308	8,550
Total unemployment (000s)	898	1,308	1,434	1,384	1,311	1,215	1,150	1,031
Unemployment rate (%)	7.5	11.0	11.8	11.2	10.5	9.5	8.8	7.8
Part-time employment (%)	13.5	14.4	15.4	15.3	15.5	15.5	15.2	15.4
Women's participation rate (%)	51.7	51.7	52.6	53.6	54.6	55.3	56.4	57.4
Unionization rate - % of paid workers	32.9	33.3	35.7	35.1	34.4	34.1	*	*
INCOME								
Median family income - 1987 $	39,228	37,445	36,450	36,981	37,737	38,472	38,851	*
% of families with low income	12.0	13.2	14.0	14.5	12.6	11.8	11.3	*
Women's full-time earnings as a % of men's	63.6	64.0	-	65.5	64.9	65.8	65.9	*
EDUCATION								
Elementary and secondary enrolment (000s)	5,024.2	4,994.0	4,974.9	4,946.1	4,927.8	4,938.0	4,973.9	5,025.5[p]
Full-time postsecondary enrolment (000s)	675.3	722.0	766.7	782.8	789.8	796.9	805.4	816.2
Doctoral degrees awarded	1,816	1,713	1,821	1,878	2,000	2,218	2,384	2,415
Government expenditures on education (1988 $000,000)	29,996.8	30,152.8	30,693.4	30,214.1	32,488.7	32,234.3	32,284.9	32,748.8
HEALTH								
Suicide rate (per 100,000)								
- men	21.3	22.3	23.4	21.4	20.5	22.8	19.7	*
- women	6.8	6.4	6.9	6.1	5.4	6.4	5.4	*
% of population 15+ who are regular cigarette smokers - men	36.7	-	34.0	-	33.1	30.8	*	*
- women	28.9	-	28.3	-	27.8	25.8	*	*
Government expenditures on health (1988 $000,000)	27,054.2	28,152.2	29,661.2	29,647.2	31,771.1	33,397.2	33,906.9	35,378.4
JUSTICE								
Crime rates (per 100,000)								
- violent	666	685	692	714	749	808	856	898
- property	5,873	5,955	5,717	5,607	5,560	5,714	5,731	5,630
- homicide	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.2	2.5	2.2
GOVERNMENT								
Expenditures on social programmes[2] (1988 $000,000)	126,645.4	135,432.3	141,872.6	143,539.5	150,743.8	154,255.3	155,903.0	159,082.8
- as a % of total expenditures	57.0	57.9	59.4	58.0	58.8	59.9	59.3	59.7
- as a % of GDP	24.7	27.9	28.5	27.4	27.9	28.1	27.1	26.4
UI beneficiaries (000s)	2,432.4	3,123.1	3,396.1	3,221.9	3,181.5	3,136.7	3,079.9	3,016.0
OAS/GIS beneficiaries[m] (000s)	2,302.8	2,368.6	2,425.7	2,490.9	2,569.5	2,652.2	2,748.5	2,835.1
Canada Assistance Plan beneficiaries[m] (000s)	1,418.4	1,502.8	1,832.9	1,894.9	1,923.3	1,892.9	1,904.9	1,853.0
ECONOMIC INDICATORS								
GDP (1981 $) - annual % change	+3.7	−3.2	+3.2	+6.3	+4.8	+3.1	+4.5	+5.0
Annual inflation rate (%)	12.5	10.8	5.8	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.4	4.1
Urban housing starts	142,441	104,792	134,207	110,874	139,408	170,863	215,340	189,635

- Not available * Not yet available [p] Preliminary estimates [m] Figures as of March.

[1] For year ending May 31st.

[2] Includes Protection of Persons and Property; Health; Social Services; Education; Recreation and Culture.

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Winter — The Inuit

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Summer — Marrying and Divorcing: A Status Report for Canada
Summer — Young Adults Living in Their Parents' Home

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Spring — Women in Professional Occupations: Progress in the 1980s
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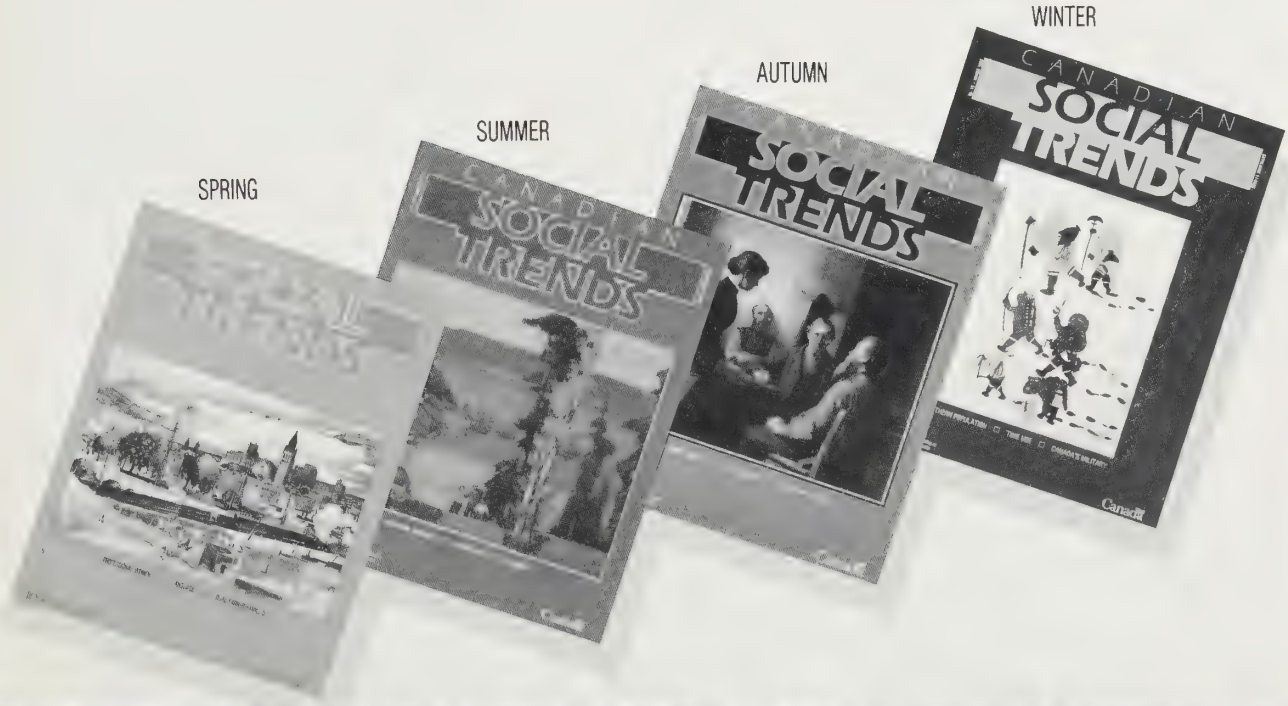
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